QUEEN VICTORIA AS A YOUNG WOMAN

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POPULAR SCIENCE

CONTAINING

A RECORD OF THE HUMAN RACE FROM THE EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME; EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF MANKIND IN NATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART

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CHAPTER XL.

FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON.

SECTION I.—LAST YEARS OF THE BOURBON ABSOLUTE MONARCHY (A. D. 1763–1789).

Louis XV and His Mistresses and Favorites.

Louis XV. had at first secured the esteem of the French people to such an extent that he was surnamed *the Well-beloved.* When he was taken seriously ill at Metz, in 1744, the whole kingdom was filled with sorrow; and his recovery was hailed with transports of joy. But Louis soon lost the affections of his subjects when he plunged into the most excessive vices and riotous debauchery and left the government of his kingdom to the most profligate and licentious favorites, such as Madames Pompadour and Du Barri. Of these favorites Madame Pompadour possessed the greatest influence at court. For twenty years she controlled the affairs of France, procured the appointment of her favorites to the most responsible offices, used the public revenues for her own private purposes and determined when the nation should be at peace or war. The favorites of the king encouraged his debauchery, so that he would leave the affairs of state entirely in their hands. As the king grew older his licentiousness increased, so that at length he lost all respect and was regarded with contempt.

Taxation, Tithes and Feudal Dues.

The voluptuousness and extravagance of the French court and the unnecessary and expensive wars with the other European states exhausted the French treasury, increased the public debt and burdened the French people with the most oppressive taxes. The taxes were all paid by the middle and lower classes, while the nobility and the clergy were exempt from all taxation. In addition to the land and property tax, capitation tax, house tax and duties upon certain articles, the lower classes had to pay tithes, labor dues and other feudal taxes to the aristocracy.

Although the French nobility were a distinct class, an hereditary caste, and although all their descendants were noble and enjoyed the

Privileges and Immunities of the French Nobility.

privileges and immunities inherited from birth, their number was an intolerable burden upon the country, although they possessed no political power since the days of Cardinal Richelieu. About this time the French nobility numbered almost one hundred and forty thousand. Only persons of noble birth were eligible to high rank in the French army or to lucrative preferments in the Church; and, as all military and ecclesiastical promotion depended upon the king's pleasure, assidious attendance at court was indispensable for the ambitious who desired active service and for the indolent who wished for honors or sinecures. The habit of court or military life tended to further separate the French nobility from their countrymen, upon whom they looked down with the pride of privileged rank and with the arrogance frequently attaching to military command. But with all their privileges and immunities, the mode of life of the French nobility and their contemptuous disregard of economy and business were such that most of them were poor, many being reduced to absolute indigence.

The King's Disputes with the Parliament of Paris.

All laws and decrees respecting taxation, in order to be valid, required registration by the Parliament of Paris. Whenever the Parliament refused to register or sanction the tax laws and decrees it became involved in a vehement dispute with the court, which generally ended in a *Bed of Justice*, by which the king overcame all opposition and carried his point.

Lettres de Cachet.

Another cause of strife between the court and the Parliament were the *lettres de cachet*, written orders bearing the seal of the king, banishing the person to whom they were addressed or ordering him to be confined in prison. This power was greatly abused. Any person hating another could easily gratify his malice by obtaining, for a certain sum of money, a *lettre de cachet* from the ruling favorite of the king, consigning the innocent victim to a lonely dungeon, from which death, in the majority of cases, was the only release. The only check on the absolute power of the king was the Parliament of Paris. After a ten years' contention with the Parliament, Louis put an end to the matter by causing the most refractory members to be arrested; and, by a series of edicts, he deprived the Parliaments of all their privileges.

Louis XVI., A. D. 1774–1793.

The profligate Louis XV. died in 1774, sighing: "*Après moi le déluge*"—"After me the deluge." He was succeeded on the throne of France by his grandson, Louis XVI., who was then only twenty years of age. Louis XVI. was a pious prince, and sincerely anxious for the good of the people over whom he reigned; but he lacked the ability and firmness necessary for the circumstances by which he was surrounded. The extravagance and wickedness of the court of Louis XV. had reduced France to a most deplorable condition. The finances of the kingdom were in a disordered state, the public credit was gone,

and the great body of the French people were groaning under the most oppressive taxation. The weak king permitted the extravagance and frivolousness of his brothers, the Count of Provence, afterward Louis XVIII., and the Count of Artois, afterward Charles X. He also allowed his wife, Marie Antoinette, the daughter of the great Austrian empress-queen, Maria Theresa, to exercise great influence upon the court and government of France. The pride and the haughty conduct of the queen provoked the dislike of the French people, who attributed every unpopular measure to her influence in the affairs of state.

His Brothers and His Queen, Marie Antoinette.

Louis XVI. was a good, dull monarch—earnestly desiring to reform the evils of the state, but knowing as little how as did that princess of his family who, upon being told that thousands of peasants were starving to death for want of bread, exclaimed: "Poor things! If there is no bread why do you not give them cake?"

His Weakness.

The prevalent scarcity of money and the disordered state of the public finances of France could be remedied only by wise reforms, such as were proposed by Turgot, whom the young king first entrusted with the charge of the finances. But Turgot's measures of economy were bitterly opposed by the extravagant courtiers, and the able Minister of Finance was obliged to resign his office.

Turgot's Ministry.

Necker, a wealthy Swiss banker, was next appointed to take charge of the French finances. By pursuing the same course which his predecessor had adopted and exposing the financial state of France in a pamphlet, Necker made himself so obnoxious to the French court and aristocracy that he also was obliged to retire from his post, A. D. 1781.

Necker's First Ministry.

About this time the War of the American Revolution, in which France took part as ally of the Americans, increased the public debt of France and excited sentiments of freedom and republicanism among the French people. Such of the French soldiers as served in America carried to France the republican spirit which they had imbibed from their American allies and imparted to their countrymen the lessons of freedom which they had learned. The writings of Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau and the Encyclopedists had made the French people discontented with existing institutions; and, in connection with the establishment of a democratic republic in North America, led to the mighty upheaval which convulsed France and all Europe in this reign.

Effects of the American Revolution and French Literature.

The vain and extravagant Calonne, who, through the influence of the queen, was now appointed Minister of Finance, adopted a policy just the reverse of that which had been pursued by the economical Necker. He continued the system of loans long after the termination of the American war, and delighted the queen and the courtiers by giving the most extravagant entertainments; but his resources were

Calonne's Ministry and Defeat of His Universal Taxation Project.

at length exhausted, and he saw no other remedy than the taxation of the nobility and the clergy of France. For the purpose of securing the adoption of this course, he called an Assembly of Notables at Versailles in 1787. After a long struggle, the project of universal taxation was defeated; and Calonne, threatened with impeachment, resigned his office and retired from the country.

Brienne's Ministry and His Struggle with the Parliament of Paris.

Calonne's successor as Minister of Finance was Brienne, who found himself obliged to follow the usual method of raising loans and increasing the taxes, in order to cover the deficit in the revenue; but in this he met with the most determined opposition from the Parliament of Paris, which refused to register his edicts. The government then arrested the boldest speakers of the Parliament and banished them to Troyes. This proceeding aroused such a storm of indignation among the French people that the government effected a compromise with the banished members, who were again recalled; and the Parliaments were again sanctioned.

Unpopularity of the Court Party and of Brienne's Measures.

The French people openly manifested their opposition to the court party. The Parliament of Paris was surrounded by noisy multitudes, which denounced the court party and showed their approval of the course of the opposition members. Brienne, who had incurred the hatred of the people, was daily burned in effigy; and in many towns in the kingdom alarming riots occurred. The people demanded the convocation of the States-General. The government made an effort to put an end to all opposition by changing the Parliament into a *cour pleniere*, "plenary court," and several subordinate courts. But the effort to overcome the opposition of the people was useless, and Brienne found himself obliged to resign his situation at a time when the French treasury was destitute of funds and the French government appeared on the eve of bankruptcy.

Necker's Second Ministry and Summoning of the States-General.

That great idol of the French people, Necker, was now recalled to the management of the finances of France. His restoration was hailed with acclamations of joy, and confidence was again restored. Necker procured the repeal of the edicts against the Parliament of Paris, and then made arrangements for the assembling of the States-General, an assembly composed of representatives chosen by the Three Estates—the nobility, the clergy and the people—which had not met since 1614. A Convention of Notables was first assembled to decide on the preliminaries necessary to the convocation of the States-General. The people demanded, and Necker maintained, that the representatives of the people, *Tiers Etat*, "Third Estate," in the coming meeting of the States-General, should equal the number of representatives of the other two Estates taken together. This double representation, after much deliberation, was conceded; and the king fixed the number of repre-

sentatives at three hundred for the nobles, three hundred for the clergy and six hundred for the people. The king appointed the ensuing May as the time for the meeting of the States-General.

SECTION II.—FRENCH NATIONAL ASSEMBLY AND OPENING OF THE REVOLUTION (A. D. 1789–1791).

States-General and Its First Difficulty.

The States-General assembled at Versailles on the 5th of May, 1789. Some of the ablest and most distinguished men of France were among its members. At the opening of this great assembly a difficulty arose as to how the representatives of the Three Estates should vote. The clergy and the nobility demanded that the three orders should meet in three separate bodies, while the people insisted that the Three Estates should meet in one body. If they met in separate bodies every measure, in order to become a law, must receive the approval of two of the Estates voting separately. It would, therefore, be an easy matter for the clergy and the nobles, whose interests were almost identical, to unite for the purpose of defeating measures for the elevation of the people. On the other hand, if they met in one body the people, on account of their double representation, would be able to manage everything their own way.

States-General, a National Assembly.

After waiting some weeks for the nobility and the clergy to join them, the deputies of the Third Estate, on the 17th of June, 1789, declared themselves the *National Assembly* of France, being, as they maintained, the representatives of the great body of the French people. Its ablest members were the Count de Mirabeau and the Abbé Sieyès. The astronomer Bailly, the representative of Paris and a great advocate of popular freedom, was chosen president of the Assembly, which was then joined by a part of the representation of the clergy and the nobles.

Royal Session and the Count de Mirabeau's Defiance.

The National Assembly immediately voted that the present levy of taxes should continue only so long as the Estates remained undissolved, and that they should cease entirely in case of a dissolution of the Estates. This boldness of the Assembly alarmed the court, under whose influence the king appointed a *Royal Session* and closed the hall of the Assembly for several days. When, on the 20th of June (1789), the members of the Assembly found the hall closed, they proceeded to the Tennis Court, where they made a solemn vow not to separate until they had framed a constitution for the French nation. When, on the 22d of June, the court caused the Tennis Court to be closed, the members of the Assembly proceeded to the Church of St. Louis, where they held their meeting. The Royal Session took place on the 23d

of June. The king granted some concessions, but threatened vengeance upon the National Assembly unless the Three Estates met in three distinct bodies. After the close of the Royal Session the king dissolved the Assembly. The nobility and the clergy obeyed and immediately withdrew from the hall, but the deputies of the people kept their seats; and when the king's officer, the Marquis de Breze, ordered them to withdraw, the Count de Mirabeau arose from his seat and exclaimed: "You, sir, have no seat, nor a right to open your lips here. You are not to remind us of the king's desire. Go, tell your master that we sit here by the power of the people of France, and that we will be driven away only at the point of the bayonet." The Abbé Sieyès then addressed the Assembly in these words: "You are today what you were yesterday. Let us enter on our deliberations." The weak monarch did not attempt to force the refractory deputies to obey, but a few days afterward he advised the nobles and the clergy to unite with the representatives of the people.

Excited State of the Parisian Populace.

While the National Assembly was engaged in forming a constitution for the French kingdom, the populace of Paris were kept in a constant state of excitement by licentious journals, pamphlets and inflammatory speeches. Unprincipled demagogues delivered violent discourses upon the rights of man, in the streets, in taverns, and particularly in the Palais Royal, the residence of the dissolute Duke of Orleans, the cousin of the king. The people were encouraged to obtain their rights by violence. Among the popular orators was the young enthusiast for popular liberty, Camille Desmoulins. The military in the capital joined the popular side and became members of the *National Guard*, a new body of militia which the people had just organized. The city government of Paris was placed in the hands of the democrats, with Bailly as Mayor. A revolutionary spirit prevailed among the people of the capital, and Paris was slumbering over a volcano which was ready to burst forth at any moment.

Revolutionary Condition of Paris.

The French court, becoming alarmed at the excited state of the populace of Paris, retired to Versailles with a small guard composed of German and Swiss troops. The leaders of the people, thinking that the king intended some act of violence, took advantage of the removal of the court to inflame the people of Paris still more. The irresolute king now listened to the indiscreet counsels of his courtiers and nobles, and a large army under Marshal Broglio was collected between Versailles and the capital. This, instead of intimidating the people, only inflamed their rage. At the same time Necker, whom the people greatly esteemed, was dismissed from the Ministry. The populace of Paris, thinking this preliminary to an intended act of violence on the part of the court, rose as one man. Crowds of the

NOTABLE FRENCH WOMEN OF THE LATE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

lowest rabble, wearing the newly-adopted national cockade, or *tricolor*, consisting of red, white and blue ribbon, marched through the streets of the city; the alarum bell was sounded; the gunsmiths' shops were broken open and plundered, and the whole city was filled with riot and confusion.

Storming and Capture of the Bastile by the Paris Mob.

On the 14th of July, 1789, the populace of Paris, after obtaining thirty thousand stand of arms and some cannon from the Hôtel des Invalides, proceeded against the Bastile, an old castle used as a state prison. The governor, Delaunay, was induced by the garrison in the Bastile to remove the cannon from the fortress, as they served only to increase the fury of the populace. Soon afterward a deputation from the Commune of Paris, headed by the popular leaders, appeared, and demanded an entrance into the Bastile for the purpose of conferring with the governor. The drawbridge was lowered for the admission of the deputation; but when the mob rushed forward and demanded arms the drawbridge was closed, and the garrison, by order of the governor, fired upon the multitude. The cries of the wounded and the dying filled the people with ungoverable rage, and they commenced storming the Bastile with fury. The garrison still resisted the advance of their assailants, who, being soon joined by a body of grenadiers, redoubled the vigor of the assault. The governor and the garrison, in despair, at length surrendered; and the populace were completely triumphant. The governor was torn in pieces by the enraged mob while on his way to the Hôtel de Ville, and his head was carried on a pole through the streets of Paris. This was the beginning of the great *French Revolution.*

The King's Dismay

The storming and capture of the Bastile by the mob of Paris struck the king and the aristocrats with consternation. The National Assembly at Versailles was violently agitated by the news from Paris, and some member proposed to send a deputation to the king to urge him to remove the troops from the city; but Clermont Tonnere said: "No, let us have them this night to take counsel. It is well that kings, like private men, should learn by experience." The Duke de Laincourt informed the king that the Bastile was taken by the mob, that Paris was in insurrection, that the guards were siding with the mob and that the regiments of the line were sullen and inactive. After a long silence, the king said: "This is an insurrection." The Duke de Laincourt replied: "No, sire, it is a revolution."

The King's Submission and the People's Triumph.

The universal defection of the troops rendered resistance hopeless, and Louis XVI. had no other alternative than submission to the triumphant populace. The banished Necker was immediately recalled to the Ministry and was received with enthusiastic joy by the people. The king returned to Paris, gave orders for the removal of the troops,

appeared before the people with the tricolor in his hat and declared himself united with the nation. Bailly, as Mayor of Paris, presented the keys of the city to the king, saying: "Sire, these are the keys that were offered to Henry IV., the conqueror of his people. To-day it is the people who have reconquered their king." Lafayette, who had fought so nobly for freedom in America, was appointed commander of the National Guard.

Popular Insubordination.

The consequences of the capture of the Bastile were that the authority of the government and the laws throughout France was at an end. All power was in the hands of the people. The peasants of the provinces no longer paid their dues to the clergy and the nobility, but they took a terrible revenge for the tyranny which they and their ancestors had suffered for centuries. Many of the nobles were murdered or driven away, and their chateaux were reduced to ashes. Many thousands of the nobility and aristocracy—with the Count of Artois and Princes of Condé and Polignac at their head—fled from France, for which reason they were called *Emigrants*.

The Emigrants.

Abolition of Aristocratic Privileges and Titles.

When informed of the proceedings in the provinces, the National Assembly declared that the aristocracy should show by their conduct that they were ready to ameliorate the condition of the masses of the French people, and, with this view, renounce all their exclusive privileges and titles. In one sudden burst of enthusiasm, the nobles and the clergy consented to surrender all their privileges and titles. Each of the privileged classes seemed to vie with the other in showing its willingness to make the greatest sacrifices for the welfare of the people.

Social, Political, Civil and Religious Equality Established.

In one excited session, in the evening of the 4th of August, 1789, the National Assembly abolished serfdom, with all tithes and labor dues, all manorial rights, corporate bodies, etc., all exclusive privileges and all titles and distinctions of rank in France, and declared the equality of all classes before the law and with respect to taxation, also declaring the soil free. A medal was struck representing Louis XVI. as the restorer of French liberty, and the king himself presided at a Te Deum to celebrate the happy event. The Assembly published a *Declaration of the Rights of Man*, which, on motion of Lafayette, included the right to resist oppression. By degrees, all vestiges of the Feudal System were swept away; the nobles thus losing their exclusive privileges, most of their incomes, titles and distinctions of rank, coats of arms, orders, etc. All Frenchmen were to be addressed as "citizens," and trial by jury and religious freedom were established. The Church was deprived of all her possessions and subjected to the State; monasteries and religious orders were dissolved; the clergy were paid by the State, and the bishoprics were newly regulated. Priests were required to swear to support the new constitution, the same as civil

officials; but, as the Pope forbade it, most of them refused to do so, and were therefore deprived of their offices and persecuted. Most significant of all, absolute monarchy in France gave way to limited, or constitutional monarchy, in which the king was shorn of most of his former prerogatives, while the legislative power was vested in a popular Legislative Assembly, consisting of but one branch, elected by universal manhood suffrage, every Frenchman being made a voter. The old political divisions, or provinces of the kingdom, which had existed from mediæval times, were obliterated, and France was divided into eighty-three *Departments*, or *Prefectures*, which were divided, subdivided and resubdivided into *Arrondissements, Cantons and Communes*. Thus the whole political condition of France was totally changed.

Imprudent Conduct of the Royal Family.

The hesitation of the king in promulgating the resolutions of the Assembly as laws produced suspicions among the French people of his sincerity. These suspicions gained ground when the Flemish regiment was summoned to Versailles, and the king, the queen and the Dauphin were impudent enough to appear at a dinner given by the soldiers of the body-guard to the officers of the regiment, when several royalist toasts were drunk, and many of the officers, mostly young nobles, under the influence of wine, made impudent speeches against the privileges and liberties which had just been acquired by the people. An exaggerated account of these proceedings was spread through Paris, and the people feared that an attempt would be made to restore the former despotism.

Famine and Bread Riots in Paris.

During the months of August and September, 1789, the National Assembly was diligently engaged in the task of framing a new national constitution for France, and the municipality of Paris was occupied in procuring bread for the lower classes of the populace; while the latter, imagining that the Revolution was to liberate them from almost every kind of restraint, were rioting in the exercise of their newly-acquired freedom. Near the end of August the famine had become so great in Paris that mobs became frequent in the streets, and the bakers' shops were surrounded by multitudes clamoring for food and shouting "bread," while the most extravagant reports were circulated through the city charging the scarcity upon the royal court and the aristocrats. This was the time of the famous "bread riots."

The Royal Family Brought to Paris by a Mob.

In the meantime the popular leaders were instigating the populace of Paris to demand that the king and the National Assembly should remove from Versailles to the capital; and on the 5th of October (1789) a multitude of the lowest refuse of the people, mostly women, armed with pikes, clubs and forks, left Paris and proceeded to Versailles. The mob demanded that the king and the Assembly should return to Paris, and cried for a relief from the scarcity of bread.

During the night the mob stormed the palace and massacred many of the king's guards who defended it. The angry rioters even broke into the queen's bed-chamber and pointed their bayonets at her bed. The terrified queen fled half-dressed to the king's apartment. Had it not been for the timely arrival of Lafayette with the National Guard the whole royal family would have been sacrificed to the fury of the mob. On the following day the king and his family were obliged to accompany the mob to Paris and to take up their abode in the Tuileries, which thenceforth remained their palace and their prison. Soon afterward the National Assembly transferred its sittings from Versailles to the capital.

Popular Orators, Journals and Revolutionary Clubs.

The lower classes in France gradually acquired more power, and were kept in a constant state of excitement against the royal family and the aristocrats by inflammatory speeches from the popular leaders. The infamous Marat, in his licentious journal, *Ami du Peuple*, "The Friend of the People," encouraged the people to acts of violence. The Revolution was also aided by the democratic clubs, which increased every day in extent and influence. Of these, the *Jacobin* club, which had branches in every town in France, was the most celebrated and the most powerful. The members of this club wore a red cap, and were satisfied with nothing less than a pure democratic republic with liberty and equality for all classes. Another democratic club was that of the *Cordeliers*, which had such violent Revolutionists as Danton and Camille Desmoulins among its leaders. The *Constitutional* club, which favored a constitutional monarchy and to which Lafayette belonged, declined in importance daily.

Fete of the Federation.

On July 14, 1790—the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastile—a grand ceremony, known as the *Fête of the Federation*, took place in the Champ de Mars, in Paris, at which the utmost enthusiasm and good feeling was manifested by all classes and all persons. Talleyrand, at the head of three hundred priests, clothed in white and girded with tri-colored scarfs, performed the consecration of the banner at the altar of the country. The king, the members of the National Assembly, headed by their president, and Lafayette in the name of the National Guard, took an oath to support the new constitution which the Assembly was engaged in framing. The vast multitude raised their hands aloft and repeated after the king the oath of citizenship; and the queen, carried away by the general enthusiasm, raised the Dauphin in the air and joined in the universal acclamations. This was the king's last day of happiness, and his situation constantly grew worse.

Necker had already retired to Switzerland; and the Count de Mirabeau, who had at first been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of

the Revolution, now joined the cause of the king, believing a constitutional monarchy, and not a republic, to be the best form of government for France. He now exerted himself to his utmost to prevent any encroachment on the authority of the king; but, unfortunately for Louis XVI., Mirabeau died in April, 1791; and the timid and irresolute king was no longer able to resist the increasing influence of the Jacobins. A short time before his death, Mirabeau said: "Before long neither the king nor the National Assembly will rule, but a vile faction will overspread the land with its horrors." Mirabeau had been a man of conservative views and loose principles and of most licentious and corrupt morals, having squandered his fortune by his dissipation and profligacy.

The Count de Mirabeau's Defection and Death.

The refusal of the king to declare the Emigrants traitors led to a prevalent belief among the French people that he was not a true supporter of the constitution then framing. This belief excited the fears of the king, and he resolved upon leaving the country. Leaving behind him a letter in which he protested against all the measures which had been forced from him since October, 1789, he fled with his family from Paris in a large carriage, in June, 1791; but did not succeed in escaping from the kingdom. Imprudently putting his head out of the window of the carriage, Louis was recognized by Drouet, the postmaster of St. Menehould, who immediately rode off to Varennes to give the alarm. When the royal family arrived at Varennes the road was barricaded, and the carriage was soon surrounded by a tumultuous mob. At this moment a party of soldiers rode up to the carriage and asked Louis if they should force a passage for him through the crowd. The king asked if it would cost many lives, and, being told that it probably would, he forbade the attempt and surrendered himself a prisoner. The royal family were conducted in triumph to Paris by an insolent mob and again compelled to resume their residence in the palace of the Tuileries.

Attempted Escape of the Royal Family.

The National Assembly, in obedience to the demands of the French people, temporarily suspended the royal authority until the king should swear to the new constitution, which was now almost completed. On the 14th of September, 1791, Louis XVI. took an oath to defend the constitution against internal and external enemies and to enforce its provisions to the best of his ability. After the adoption of the constitution, the National Assembly passed an ordinance declaring that none of its members should be elected to the next Assembly, and then declared itself dissolved. This self-denying ordinance was a very unwise proceeding, as the members of the National Assembly were generally men of more than average ability, while the members of the next Assembly were less able men.

Adoption of the New Constitution.

SECTION III.—FRENCH LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY AND FALL OF MONARCHY (A. D. 1791–1792).

Parities in the New Legislative Assembly.

THE elections for representatives in the new Assembly, called *the Legislative Assembly*, had resulted in a complete success of the republicans. The royalists had exercised no influence in the elections whatever. The Assembly was thoroughly democratic. The *French Legislative Assembly*—which convened at Paris, October 1, 1791—was divided between three parties. The *Feuillants*, or Constitutionalists, then an insignificant party, upheld the constitution and the monarchy. The moderate republicans—called *Girondists*, or *Girondins*, because their leading orators were from Bordeaux and the Department of the Gironde—comprised the best men in the Assembly, such as Brissot, Roland, Barbaroux, Condorcet, Vergniaud, Dumouriez and others. This party was opposed to unnecessary bloodshed and in favor of a federal republic like the United States. The violent republicans, or Jacobins—called the *Mountain*, or *Montagnards*, because they occupied the highest seats in the Assembly—were controlled by the Jacobin and Cordeliers clubs, whose chiefs were Robespierre, Marat, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, St. Just, Couthon, Duke Philip of Orleans and others. These Red Republicans, or blood-thirsty Revolutionists, were anarchists, and were upheld by the Paris Commune and the Paris mob.

Girondists and the Mountain.

The Assembly's Measures Vetoed by the King.

The first measures of the French Legislative Assembly were directed against the priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath, and against the Emigrants, who had gathered at Coblentz and were making every effort to stir up foreign powers to make war on France for the purpose of effecting the restoration of the former despotism. The Assembly took measures for the arrest of the unsworn priests, and declared the Emigrants to be traitors and conspirators and endeavored to effect the confiscation of their estates. These measures were vetoed by the king, and their execution was thus prevented. This excited the indignation of the French people, who believed that the royal family were plotting with the Emigrants and with Leopold II. of Austria, Emperor of Germany, the brother of the queen, for the overthrow of the new system and for the reëstablishment of the old state of things in France.

Edmund Burke's Stand against the Revolution.

From the beginning of the Revolution the crowned heads of Europe had looked with alarm upon the rising tide of republicanism in France; and Edmund Burke, the great Irish-English statesman, had done all in his power to excite a European crusade against this mighty disturbance of the social and political institutions which Europe had re-

ceived from mediæval and feudal times. As the British Parliament and the Ministry of the younger William Pitt were deaf to his appeals, he appealed to England and to Europe through his pen by publishing his *Reflections on the French Revolution* in October, 1790, as already noticed. We have also seen that he sent his son to join the army of the Emigrants at Coblentz, and that he wrote to them: "Be alarmists; diffuse terror."

Attitude of Europe's Crowned Heads.

It was now evident that a foreign war must soon break out. The Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and such Bourbon kings as Charles IV. of Spain and Ferdinand IV. of Naples were moved by ties of kindred to protect the royal family of France. The Empress Catharine the Great of Russia hastened to end her second war with Turkey in order to further her designs against Poland by embroiling Austria and Prussia in the rescue of the French monarchy from the menacing hands of the Revolutionists of Paris.

Feudal Claims of German Princes in France.

The divided jurisdiction of the border provinces between France and Germany demanded immediate action on the part of the Emperor Leopold II. and the German Imperial Diet. By the famous Act of August 4, 1789, several German princes had been deprived of their feudal claims in Franche-Comté, Alsace and Lorraine; while the Archbishop-Electors of Treves and Mayence had lost their spiritual rights over the cities of Spires, Strassbourg, Metz, Toul and Verdun.

Action of Austria and Prussia.

The Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and King Frederick William II. of Prussia, after their conference at Pilnitz, in Saxony, in August, 1791, united in a demand that the French should indemnify the German princes and nobles who had suffered losses by the abolition of tithes and feudal dues in France; restore to the Pope the province of Avignon, which they had wrested from him, and reform their government upon the plan proposed by their king in June, 1789, and appealed to the other European powers to join them in an effort to reestablish Louis XVI. in his former authority. Accordingly Austria, Prussia, Spain and Sardinia assembled troops to suppress the Revolution in France; but Great Britain hesitated, as the peaceful Mr. Pitt was unwilling to interfere in the internal affairs of France until he was forced to do so as an act of self-defense, and he was supported by the Tories, while the Whigs followed Mr. Fox in his applause of the French Revolution, so that Mr. Burke was left alone in his anti-Revolutionary sentiment.

Great Britain's Hesitation.

The Emigrant Forces.

The Count of Provence, a brother of King Louis XVI., having fled from France, assumed the command of the Emigrant forces at Coblentz, where he established a little court, which became the headquarters of these refugee French nobles. The movements of the Coalition were delayed by the death of the Emperor Leopold II. of Germany and the

Deaths of Sovereigns.

assassination of King Gustavus III. of Sweden, both of which occurred in March, 1792.

French Anger. The French people were exasperated that foreign powers should dictate to them what form of government they should have, and they resolved never to submit to such insolence. The ablest men of the Legislative Assembly—which was inferior in talent to the National Assembly—were in the Girondist party, which gained the ascendency upon the first hostile movement of Austria and Prussia.

Girondist Ascendency.

War against Austria and Prussia. The preparations of Austria and Prussia to interfere in the affairs of France, and Austria's ultimatum demanding the restoration of the former despotism in France, caused the French Legislative Assembly to declare war, April 20, 1792. King Louis XVI., unable to resist the will of the Assembly and the people of France, accepted a Girondist Ministry headed by Roland, and with tears yielded his assent to the declaration of war against the sovereign who had armed in his behalf—his own nephew, Francis II. of Austria, who had succeeded his father Leopold II. as King of Hungary and Bohemia, and who was afterward also elected Emperor of Germany.

Roland's Girondist Ministry.

Three French Armies. The confiscations of ecclesiastical and royal property had filled the treasury of the Assembly; and three French armies—commanded respectively by Lafayette, Rochambeau and Luckner—were sent to guard the northern and eastern frontiers of France. Rochambeau's army, forty-eight thousand strong, held the line from Dunkirk to Philippeville; Lafayette's force, numbering fifty-two thousand men, occupied the line from Philippeville to Lauterbourg; and Luckner's forty-two thousand troops were stationed in the district between Lauterbourg and Basle. The French military operations were unsuccessful, and two strong French detachments were routed by the Austrians near Lille and Valenciennes.

Lafayette's Efforts to Check Girondists and Jacobins. The Girondists were now obliged to make additional bids for the support of the mob by decreeing the banishment of the priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath, the dismissal of the royal guards and the formation of a "federal army" to be encamped near Paris. Lafayette, who was disgusted and alarmed by these movements, wrote to the Legislative Assembly from his camp on the northern frontier, demanding the suppression of the Jacobin faction and its clubs; but his efforts only hastened the catastrophe which he sought to prevent.

The Federates and Fall of the Girondist Ministry. To secure the Legislative Assembly against any attack, it was determined to call twenty thousand of the federates from the northern provinces of France to Paris, with the professed object of celebrating the capture of the Bastile and to entrust the defense of Paris to them. But Louis XVI. refused his approval of this measure; whereupon the

ROUGET DE L'ISLE SINGING THE MARSEILLAISE HYMN

From the Painting by Isidore Pils

Girondist Ministers, with Roland at their head, resigned their offices, June 13, 1792; and Madame Roland severely censured the king in a letter. These proceedings excited the frenzy of the French people and enabled the Revolutionists to bring about an insurrection. On the 20th of June, the anniversary of the Tennis Court, a furious mob, armed with scythes, clubs, axes, forks and pikes, and headed by the brewer Santerre and the butcher Legendre, entered the Tuileries for the purpose of compelling the king to approve of the decrees against the unsworn priests and for calling out the National Guard. For several hours the king bore the insults of the mob, who even went so far as to take off his diadem and put the red cap of the Jacobins on his head, until the appearance of the National Guard under Pétion freed him from danger.

Insurrection of June 20, 1792.

The plots of the Emigrants and the Austro-Prussian invasion of France caused the Assembly to declare the country in danger; and, in response to the call of the Jacobin leaders—Robespierre, Danton and Marat—the "federal army" mustered throughout France. The vilest wretches, many of them ex-convicts, hastened to Paris, singing the Revolutionary song just written by Rouget de l'Isle, and named the *Marseillaise*, because it was published at Marseilles.

The Federal Army.

The following is an English translation of the *Marseillaise:*

Marseillaise.

"Ye sons of France, awake to glory!
Hark, hark, what myriads bid you rise!
Your children, wives and grandsires hoary,
Behold their tears and hear their cries.
Shall hateful tyrants, mischief breeding,
With hireling hosts, a ruffian band,
Affright and desolate the land,
While peace and liberty lie bleeding?

CHORUS.

"To arms, to arms, ye brave!
Th' avenging sword unsheath.
March on, march on, all hearts resolved
On liberty or death!

"Now, now the dangerous storm is rolling,
Which treacherous kings confederate raise.
The dogs of war, let loose, are howling,
And lo! our fields and cities blaze.
And shall we basely view the ruin,
While lawless Force, with guilty stride,
Spreads desolation far and wide,
With crime and blood his hands imbruing?

"With luxury and pride surrounded,
The vile, infatuate despots dare—
Their thirst of gold and power unbounded,
To mete and vend the light and air.

Like beasts of burden would they load us—
Like tyrants bid their slaves adore;
But man is man, and who is more?
Nor shall they longer lash and goad us.

"O Liberty! can man resign thee,
Once having felt thy generous flame?
Can dungeons, bolts and bars confine thee,
Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
Too long the world has wept, bewailing
That falsehood's dagger tyrants wield;
But freedom is our sword and shield,
And all their arts are unavailing!"

Austro-Prussian Invasion of France.

Near the close of July, 1792, an Austro-Prussian army of one hundred and forty thousand men, commanded by Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, the celebrated commander of the British and Hanoverian forces in the Seven Years War, passed the eastern frontier of France and marched into Lorraine. Before advancing into France, the Duke of Brunswick, at the proposal of one of the Emigrants, had issued an insolent proclamation demanding that the French submit to their lawful sovereign, threatening to lay Paris in ashes if the royal family were harmed, and promising to obtain a free pardon from their sovereign for their rebellious conduct if they submitted. The insolent tone of this proclamation tended to inflame the mad fury of the Revolutionists in Paris and excited in the French people the fiercest rage against the Emigrants and their foreign allies.

The Duke of Brunswick's Proclamation.

Violent Courses of the Jacobins, the Federal Volunteers and the Paris Sections.

Such Jacobin leaders as Robespierre, Marat, Danton and Camille Desmoulins harangued the Parisian populace and inflamed their rage. These demagogues called to Paris from Marseilles, Brest and other French maritime towns the very dregs of society and resolved upon a general insurrection in the capital. On August 3d (1792) the Sections of Paris, headed by Pétion, proceeded to the Assembly and demanded the instant dethronement of Louis XVI. The federal volunteers made the same demand on the 6th (August, 1792). The Assembly hesitated and finally resolved by a large majority not to arrest the king or bring him to trial. This action of the Assembly so infuriated the Sections that they resolved to take the matter in their own hands, and after they had secured the municipal government of Paris they proceeded to execute their purpose.

The Tenth of August.

Before daylight on the 10th of August (1792) a frantic mob led by Danton appeared before the Tuileries, which was defended by nine hundred Swiss guards and the Parisian National Guard. The mob pointed their cannon toward the palace; and the National Guard, unwilling to fire upon the multitude, dispersed. The mob, gradually becoming bolder, finally demanded the dethronement of the king. Here-

upon the king and his family fled to the hall of the Assembly, where they remained for thirty-six hours. No sooner had the king left the Tuileries than the mob pressed forward and endeavored to force an entrance into the palace; whereupon the Swiss guards fired upon the multitude, who were driven back with a loss of two hundred men. The indignant Assembly, hearing the fire of musketry, required the king to order his guards to cease firing upon the people. No sooner was the order carried into execution than the infuriated mob stormed the palace, massacred without mercy all whom they found in it and destroyed the furniture. About five thousand persons, seven hundred of whom were Swiss guards, fell victims to the rage of the mob.

Fall of Monarchy and Imprisonment of the Royal Family.

The bloody event of the 10th of August was the death-blow to the monarchy in France. In the meantime the Legislative Assembly, at the demand of the triumphant mob and at the proposal of Vergniaud, the president of that body, suspended the royal authority and issued a call for the assembling of a National Convention on the 22d of September, 1792. On August 13 (1792) the king and his family were imprisoned in the Temple, a gloomy old building, which had once belonged to the Knights-Templars; and the Paris Commune virtually ruled France. After the king had been deprived of his authority the Assembly appointed a new Ministry with the Girondist Roland at its head. The frightful Danton held the office of Minister of Justice. The Ministry and the Common Council of Paris, which appointed pikemen to the police of the capital, managed everything their own way.

Roland's Second Girondist Ministry.

Committee of Safety and Revolutionary Tribunal.

A *Committee of Safety* under the presidency of Marat was established, which inaugurated an infamous system of espionage and domiciliary visitation for the purpose of detecting conspiracies against the state. A *Revolutionary Tribunal* of nine judges was created to try persons accused of conspiracy against the state, and it was governed by martial law, while its decisions were final.

Flight and Exile of Lafayette and Talleyrand.

Lafayette, who had hastened to Paris after the insurrection of June for the purpose of saving the king, if possible, was now ordered to appear before the Assembly to answer for his conduct. Rightly believing that the Jacobines were resolved upon his destruction, Lafayette fled into the Austrian Netherlands with the intention of escaping to America; but he was seized by the Austrians, who kept him a prisoner for five years in the dungeons of Magdeburg and Olmütz. Talleyrand fled to England, and thence to America, where he remained until the sanguinary period of the Revolution was over, when he returned to his native country.

The capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians infuriated the Parisians. Danton declared it necessary to crush all opposition by

The September Massacres.

striking terror into the Royalists at home, and three thousand persons were arrested and imprisoned in one night, August 30, 1792. It had been determined from the first to put these prisoners to death; and at three o'clock in the morning of September 2 (1792) the tocsin was sounded; whereupon three hundred hired assassins, under the direction of Marat, Danton and Robespierre, broke open the prisons and commenced a frightful massacre of the unfortunate inmates. Twenty-four priests who refused to take the Revolutionary oath were cut to pieces. During the massacres the assassins, stained with blood, established courts for the trial of their victims; and the fate of each was decided in the course of a few minutes.

Reign of Terror Begun.

By these five days' September massacres (September 2–7, 1792) about three thousand persons were massacred in the different prisons of Paris; women, children, paupers and lunatics being slaughtered for no other conceivable reason than a thirst for blood. The *Reign of Terror* had fairly begun; and the *guillotine*, an instrument for beheading, named in derision after Dr. Guillotin, a member of the Legislative Assembly, was set up beneath the windows of the king's prison. Among its first victims was the Princess de Lamballe, the friend of Queen Marie Antoinette. A band of pikemen held the head of the murdered princess upon a pole before the window of the queen, who fell into frightful convulsions at the horrid spectacle. The same bloody scenes were enacted at Meaux, Rheims, Lyons and Orleans. The monarchy in France was now completely overthrown, and the French Legislative Assembly ended its sittings on the 20th of September, 1792.

The Guillotine.

Princess de Lamballe Murdered.

SECTION IV.—REPUBLICAN FRANCE UNDER THE NATIONAL CONVENTION (A. D. 1792–1795).

National Convention and Birth of the First French Republic.

The French Legislative Assembly was succeeded by a *National Convention*, which assembled at Paris on the 22d of September, 1792. On the very first day of its meeting the Convention decreed that royalty was abolished in France and a Republic was proclaimed. The Convention also enacted that time, instead of being reckoned from the birth of Christ, should thereafter be reckoned from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. All titles were abolished, and men were to be called *citizen* and women *citizeness*. The Convention also condemned the Emigrants to perpetual banishment, and threatened them with death if they returned to France or were taken in arms. One of the members of the Convention was Thomas Paine, who had come to France to aid the Revolution, as he had before gone to help the establishment of liberty in America, and

Thomas Paine in the Convention.

who had written a work entitled the *Rights of Man* in support of the French Revolution, thus replying to Edmund Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution.*

Animosity between the Mountain and the Gironde.

Although the Girondists and the Mountain had united in the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the French Republic, the most bitter feeling was now manifested between these two Revolutionary parties. The National Convention, having been elected by universal suffrage, was composed almost exclusively of members belonging to one or the other of these republican parties. The Girondists, who were the more moderate, or conservative party, were superior to their opponents in numbers and in ability; but the party of the Mountain were able to force the most extreme and desperate measures by their bloodthirsty energy and sanguinary unscrupulousness.

The Mountain, Jacobin Clubs and Sans-Culottes.

The Mountain, or Jacobin party, exerted greater influence through the audacity of its members and the support of the Paris Commune and the Paris mob. After overthrowing existing institutions, the Jacobins sought to found a new system of *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité*—"Liberty, Equality, Fraternity." Acting upon the principle that "he who is not for us is against us," this extreme party sought to crush all opposition by violence and bloodshed. The party of the Mountain soon obtained the mastery through its strength in the Jacobin clubs and the wild bands of *Sans-Culottes*, who were kept in a constant state of excitement by such Revolutionary songs as the *Marseillaise* and the *Ca ira*, by Revolution festivals, Trees of Liberty, etc.

Battle of Valmy and French Invasions.

On the 20th of September, 1792, the Prussian army which had advanced into Champagne was defeated by the French under Dumouriez and Kellerman in the battle of Valmy. After this battle the Prussians agreed to evacuate the French territories, and retreated to the Rhine. The French army under Custine then advanced into Germany to the Rhine and captured Treves, Spires and Mayence. The French Assembly declared war against King Victor Amadeus III. of Sardinia, September 10, 1792. General Montesquieu invaded Savoy, and General Anselm occupied Nice. The French Republic afterwards declared these provinces annexed to its territory.

Battle of Jemappes.

Meanwhile the Austrians who had invaded France from the Austrian Netherlands were also obliged to retreat, and were pursued by the French army under Dumouriez across the frontier into the Austrian Netherlands. On the 6th of November, 1792, Dumouriez won a decisive victory over the Austrians in the battle of Jemappes, which gave the French possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and in which the French stormed the Austrian intrenchments to the chant of the *Marseillaise.* The French soldiers fought for liberty, the allied troops for pay.

Belgian Republic.

The French victory of Jemappes was largely due to the revolutionary spirit of the people of the Austrian Netherlands, who, under French influence, immediately renounced their allegiance to the House of Hapsburg and again proclaimed the Belgian Republic.

Aggressive Action of the French National Convention.

Amid the excitement occasioned by the victories of Dumouriez, the National Convention resolved that every French general should proclaim the sovereignty of the people and the overthrow of monarchy in any country that he should invade, and that he should treat as enemies any people who should refuse *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité.* In violation of the Treaties of Münster and Fontainebleau, the National Convention declared the Scheldt open, and French warships forced a passage up that river to bombard Antwerp. The French Republic thus asserted itself the arbiter of international law, even ignoring treaties confirmed by previous French governments.

Louis XVI. Accused of Treason and Conspiracy.

One great design of the Jacobins was to take away the life of "Louis Capet," as the king was now called. They accused him of conspiracy against the French Republic and of a treasonable correspondence with foreign powers. An iron safe had been found in a wall in the Tuileries, containing secret letters and documents, thus showing that the French court had not only been in alliance with Austria and with the Emigrants, and had planned the overthrow of the Constitution that Louis XVI. had sworn to observe, but that it had also endeavored to win the support of members of the National Assembly by bribery, by pensions and by other means. The discussion on the king's trial began November 13, 1792.

His Trial Ordered.

After a long and fierce discussion between the Mountain and the Gironde, the National Convention decreed that "Louis Capet" should be brought before the Convention for trial; and the accusation against him was read December 10, 1792. The main charges were that he had instigated foreign powers to invade France; that he had caused the capture of Longwy and Verdun by the Prussians by his neglect of the army, and that he had provoked the insurrection of the 10th of August for the purpose of sacrificing the lives of his subjects.

No Time for Calm Judgment.

The king's dethronement when the Republic was proclaimed by the National Convention should have barred all the accusations against him; but this was not a time for legal technicalities or calm judgment to have any weight, when France was in the throes of the mightiest revolution that the world had ever seen. Robespierre appealed to the popular will. Said he: "What have not the friends of liberty to fear when they see the ax unsteady in your grasp and detect a regret for your past fetters, even after your emancipation?"

Robespierre's View.

The Jacobins themselves were convinced of the illegality of their proceedings against the king. In demanding his death Robespierre

and the orator St. Just relied solely on reasons of state. Said Robespierre: "There is no trial contemplated. Louis is not accused. You are not his judges. You are and can only be statesmen. You have not to pronounce a sentence for or against a man; but you have a measure of public safety to adopt—an act of national care to undertake. A dethroned king in a republic can only do two things. Either he troubles the tranquillity of the state and endangers its liberty or he adds security to both. Louis was king. The republic is founded. The great question which occupies you is decided in these few words: Louis is not to be tried. He has been tried already. He is condemned, or the Republic is not absolute."

Trial of Louis XVI.

When Louis XVI. was brought before the bar of the National Convention as a criminal, December 10, 1792, he asked for counsel; and, when one whom he had selected declined through fear, the venerable Malesherbes volunteered his services, and Deseze and Tronchet also assisted in the king's defense. Said Malesherbes: "I have been twice called to assist at his council-table when such a summons was an object of ambition to every one. I owe him the same service now that it is a function that many persons would consider dangerous." The king's defense was conducted with great skill and ability by his counsel—Deseze, Tronchet and Malesherbes—after which a long and earnest discussion arose. Robespierre said: "The last proof of devotion which we owe to our country is to stifle in our hearts every sentiment of sensibility."

His Conviction and Condemnation.

After a trial of twenty days the unfortunate monarch was declared guilty by an almost-unanimous vote of the Convention. The Girondists rightly endeavored to have the question of the king's punishment referred to the French people; but the Jacobins prevented it, and caused a resolution to be passed by the Convention declaring that a bare majority, and not a two-thirds vote, should be necessary for the condemnation of the king. The Convention next proceeded to prescribe the mode of the king's punishment. The savage mob surrounding the Convention heaped menaces upon all who dared to be merciful, thus frightening the Girondists who desired to save the king's life. The voting lasted ten days; and each deputy rose as his name was called, and voted for death, exile or imprisonment. Finally, on January 20, 1793, Vergniaud, the president of the Convention, with a voice of emotion, announced the result, which was that the National Convention by a bare majority of twenty-six out of seven hundred and twenty-one votes sentenced "Louis Capet" to death within twenty-four hours. Among those who voted for the king's death was his own cousin, Philip, Duke of Orleans, a dissolute character, who had taken an active part in the Revolution as a Jacobin leader and who had as-

sumed the title of Philippe *Egalité*—"Equality." Thomas Paine voted against the king's death, as did the Girondists generally, but they were unable to overrule the fiery Jacobins.

His Farewell to His Family.

Louis requested the attendance of the Abbé Edgeworth to administer the offices of religion to him in his last moments—a request which was granted. He was also granted a last interview with his family, from whom he had been separated for some time; but the keepers required that the meeting should take place in a hall with a glass door giving a view of the interior. The king entered the apartment at eight in the evening of January 20, 1793. A door opened at half past eight, when his wife Marie Antoinette, his sister Elizabeth and his two children entered, casting themselves into his arms with sobs. After a long and sad interview, Louis arose, and, after a most heart-rending farewell, departed.

His Last Hours.

Toward midnight the king slept soundly, and did so until five in the morning of the fatal day, when the Abbé Edgeworth administered the Sacrament to him. At eight o'clock in the morning, January 21, 1793, the brewer Santerre arrived to take the king to the place of execution. The king entered the carriage with the officers; and the sad procession moved between two lines of soldiers guarding the streets, and arrived at the place of execution in the Place de la Revolution at half past ten o'clock, on that fatal day. The procession had moved in silence, no signs of approbation or regret being noticeable.

His Execution.

Louis XVI. left the carriage and ascended the scaffold with a firm step. Looking around at the vast multitude, he exclaimed: "Frenchmen, I die innocent; I forgive my enemies!" He was prevented from saying more by the noise of the drums which the brewer Santerre ordered to be beaten for the purpose of drowning his voice. Three executioners then siezed hold of the king and tied his hands. The king then laid his head upon the block, and the Abbé Edgeworth exclaimed: "Son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!" Down came the axe of the guillotine, and the head that had worn a crown was severed from the body. One executioner, holding aloft the king's bloody, dissevered head, exclaimed: "Vive la Republique!" Most of the spectators wept at the sad spectacle. His body, without being put into a coffin, was laid in a plain grave; and quicklime was spread over it to hasten the decomposition. Thus perished one of the kindliest and most virtuous monarchs that ever wore a crown. The memory of his infamous regicides will ever be held in execration by an impartial posterity.

The Dauphin.

Louis XVI. was in the thirty-ninth year of his age and the nineteenth of his reign when brought to so ill-fated an end. His brother, the Count of Provence, then in exile from his native land, declared him-

self regent for the unfortunate king's little son, the Dauphin, whom the royalists recognized as Louis XVII. and who was still imprisoned in the Temple.

Europe's Indignation and France's Proclamation.

The execution of Louis XVI. aroused a feeling of horror and indignation throughout Europe, and was regarded by the crowned heads of Europe as a general menace to all the monarchies of the world. The French were looked upon as anarchists and as the common enemies of mankind. The National Convention, intoxicated with the victories of General Dumouriez, had issued a proclamation offering the aid of the French Republic to all nations that would overthrow their monarchical governments and establish republican forms in their stead; the Convention's president, Vergniaud, having declared: "All governments are our enemies; all peoples are our allies."

Coalition of Europe's Crowned Heads.

In this crisis of peril to the established monarchical, aristocratic and ecclesiastical institutions of Europe, the other European governments made common cause. Early in 1793 almost all the crowned heads of Europe formed a coalition against the French Republic. The French ambassadors were ordered to leave the various European courts, and French citizens residing or traveling in the various European countries were arrested or expelled.

War Declared against Great Britain, Holland and Spain.

The National Convention did not wait to be attacked, but, resolving to anticipate the designs of the enemies of the French Republic by taking the first step, declared war against the *rulers* of Great Britain, Holland and Spain, in February, 1793, thus implying that the people of those countries had an interest different from that of their rulers. It was clearly understood on both sides that this was to be a life-and-death struggle between royalty and republicanism in Europe, and the National Convention ordered a levy of half a million men for the impending conflict.

Great Britain's Leadership under the Younger William Pitt.

The First Coalition against Revolutionary France embraced Great Britain, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Austria, Prussia, the German Empire and the Italian states. Great Britain, under her illustrious Prime Minister, the second William Pitt, kept in power by the Tories, headed the European Coalition and furnished her Continental allies with large subsidies. After many vain efforts to preserve peace, Pitt had been forced into the war against the French Republic by the aggressive action of the French themselves and by the public sentiment in England which Edmund Burke had created by voice and pen against the French Revolution—a result which led Burke to separate himself from his old political and personal friend, Charles James Fox, the leader of the liberal Whigs.

The confiscated wealth of Church and State provided the French Republic with greater wealth than even Louis XIV. had at his com-

Magnitude of the Struggle.

mand. The war thus commenced continued almost without intermission for a period of over twenty years, and taxed the energies of Europe more severely than any other struggle recorded in history. But when the conflict began each party underrated the resources of the other, and Mr. Pitt expected to see the war ended in a campaign or two.

Republican Party in Mayence and Prussian Recapture of the City.

Upon the capture of Mayence by the French under General Custine, October 21, 1792, the French garrison had been welcomed with enthusiasm by the inhabitants, who had been deserted by their Archbishop-Elector, their clergy and nobility before the capture of the city; and a powerful republican party in Mayence, under the leadership of George Foster, an English circumnavigator of the globe, advocated the principles of liberty and equality proclaimed by the French Republic. In March, 1793, the Prussians recaptured Mayence, which surrendered only after a long and obstinate defense, during which the garrison and the inhabitants endured the horrors of famine. The triumphant Prussians again approached the French frontiers; as did the British, Dutch, Austrians, Hanoverians and other German troops.

Efforts of General Dumouriez to Save the King.

After the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands, General Dumouriez had made great efforts to save the king's life, to defeat the Jacobins and to restore the constitutional monarchy. During the debate in the National Convention on the fate of Louis XVI., Dumouriez returned to Paris and exerted himself actively to prevent the king's execution. Seeing the hopelessness of these efforts, he returned to his army, invaded Holland and siezed Breda, Klundert and Gertruydenberg. He was followed by Jacobin spies.

Battle of Neerwinden and Defection of Dumouriez.

An Austrian army under the Prince of Coburg, assisted by Clairfait and the Archduke Charles, defeated the French army under Dumouriez in the battle of Neerwinden, March 18, 1793. Dumouriez ascribed this defeat to the Jacobins, whom he accused of having corrupted the army. Disgusted with the violence of the Jacobins, he entered into a treaty with the Austrian commanders for the overthrow of the French Republic and the reëstablishment of the constitutional monarchy in France with the Duke de Chartres, afterward King Louis Philippe, the eldest son of the infamous Philippe Egalité, Duke of Orleans, as king.

His Impeachment, Flight and Exile.

The Jacobin spies in Dumouriez's army transmitted the news of his treasonable proceedings to Paris, and the National Convention impeached him and sent four commissioners into his camp to arrest him and bring him to Paris; but Dumouriez siezed the commissioners of the Convention and delivered them as prisoners to the Austrians. He then appealed to his army to follow him in a march upon Paris to rescue France from the tyranny of the National Convention; but his troops deserted him, and he fled to the Austrian camp for refuge. He was never permitted to return to France.

THE GIRONDISTS ON THE WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE

From the Painting by Carl Piloty

Revolutionary Tribunal and Committee of Public Safety.

In the meantime, while France was threatened on all her frontiers with foreign enemies, the deadly strife between the Mountain and the Gironde was fast bringing matters to a crisis. On March 10, 1793, a new *Revolutionary Tribunal* was established, consisting of twelve jurymen and five judges, to decide without appeal the fate of all persons accused of crimes against "liberty, equality and the indivisibility of the Republic." On May 27, 1793, a *Committee of Public Safety* was established, consisting of nine members and invested with dictatorial powers.

Quarrel between the Mountain and the Gironde.

The Mountain made use of Dumouriez's treachery to overthrow the Gironde, to which party Dumouriez had belonged. For the purpose of putting a stop to the violence of the mob in Paris and destroying the domination of the capital, the Girondists endeavored to erect France into a federal republic. The Jacobins, seeing that this scheme, carried into effect, would weaken their power, violently opposed the project and determined to prevent it by the destruction of the Girondist leaders. The Jacobins accused the Girondists of having an understanding with Dumouriez in his treason to the Republic, and reproached them with weakening the power of the French people and destroying the Republic at a time when France was menaced with internal and external foes. When the eloquence of the Girondists repelled the charges of the Jacobins, the savage Marat, in his violent journal, *Ami du Peuple*, "The Friend of the People," called upon the mob of Paris to rise against the moderate and the lukewarm, thus inciting daily riots and tumults in the capital, which menaced the life and property of all moderate and reputable people.

The Gironde's Fruitless Efforts to Punish Marat and Hebert.

The Girondists caused Marat to be arrested and brought before a court of justice for disturbing the public peace, but he was acquitted by the Jacobins and carried back to the Convention in triumph by the Paris mob. Through the efforts of the Gironde, the Convention appointed a Commission of Twelve to detect and punish those who had incited the riots and tumults. Hebert, the Procureur of the Paris Commune, in his vulgar and libellous journal, *Pére Duchesne*, excited the populace to acts of violence and murder; whereupon he and some of his accomplices were imprisoned by order of the Commission of Twelve; but the raging mob compelled their release.

Insurrections of May 31 and June 2, 1793, and Fall of the Gironde.

The great insurrections of May 31 and June 2, 1793, were brought about by Hebert and by the leading members of the National Convention—Marat, Danton and Robespierre. Headed by the infamous Henriot—who had been successively a laquay, a smuggler and spy of the police, and who was now made commander of the National Guard—a mob of eighty thousand Sans-Culottes surrounded the Tuileries, in which the National Convention was in session, and demanded with

menaces the abolition of the Commission of Twelve and the exclusion of the Girondists and the moderates. The Girondists made vain efforts to prevent the Convention from complying with the demands of the raging mob. When the majority of the Convention, seeing themselves deprived of the freedom of their deliberations, attempted to retire from the hall, with their courageous president, Herault, at their head, they were forced back by the mob under Henriot, and compelled to comply with the demands of the San-Culottes and the Mountain and thus yield to mob violence.

Imprisonment, Expulsion and Revolt of Girondist Leaders.

Thereupon thirty-two Girondist deputies were siezed and imprisoned, and seventy-three others were expelled from the Convention for protesting against the arrest and incarceration of their fellow-members. Twenty of those who were imprisoned—Pétion and Barbaroux among the number—escaped to Normandy and Brittany, as did many of those who had been expelled from the Convention. Proceeding to Caen, in Normandy, they placed themselves at the head of a counter-revolution which had already broken out in the West of France. These expelled Girondist deputies set up a rival government at Caen, raised an army under General Wimpffen and opened communications with Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Nismes, Montauban and other cities in the South of France which had risen in arms against the National Convention and the Jacobin leaders, determined to assert their freedom against the tyranny of the Mountain.

Assassination of Marat by Charlotte Corday, and Her Execution.

Charlotte Corday, a young and beautiful heroine, went from Caen to Paris to avenge the fate of the Girondist leaders and to save the Republic by the assassination of Marat, whom she regarded as the author of the insurrections of May 31 and June 2. She was a young maiden of genius and exalted character and a warm partisan of the Gironde. Upon arriving at Paris, Charlotte Corday obtained admission to the house of Marat and stabbed him to the heart. She made no attempt to escape, and was sentenced to death by the Revolutionary Tribunal. She met death by the gullotine bravely and with the satisfaction of having performed what she considered a noble action. Said she: "I have killed one man to save a hundred thousand—a depraved wretch to save the innocent—a ferocious monster to procure peace to my country. I was a republican before the Revolution, and I never wanted energy."

Popular Honors to Marat.

But Marat became an object of greater enthusiasm and admiration to the Revolutionary multitude after his assassination than he had been during his lifetime. Blasphemous honors were paid to his memory; his name was invoked in the public squares; his bust was seen in all the popular assemblies; the National Convention was forced to grant him the honors of the Pantheon; and his heart, deposited in an agate

vase, was placed on an altar and surrounded with flowers and the smoke of incense.

The Mountain under Robespierre and Danton.

After the expulsion of the Girondist deputies the Girondist party in the National Convention was broken up, and the Convention was thereafter completely under the control of the sanguinary party of the Mountain with Robespierre and Danton at their head, so that nothing for a time was able to withstand their violence. France felt the terrible consequences of the victory of the Jacobins, and thereafter there seemed no hope for the unhappy country.

Allied Invasions of France on all Sides.

While the French National Convention was engaged in suppressing numerous insurrections against its authority and against the Revolutionary power, during the year 1793, the armies of almost all the other nations of Europe were in the field against the French Republic. British, Dutch and Austrian armies were on the northern frontier; Prussian, Austrian and German armies had crossed the Rhine on the east; the Sardinians threatened France on the south-east, and the Spanish and the Portuguese forces occupied the Pyrenees on the south-west.

The Convention's Vigorous Action and the Royalist Revolts.

Infuriated by an increase of the armies of the European coalition against Revolutionary France, both upon the northern and southern frontiers of the Republic, and by the revolts in the West and South of France, the National Convention proceeded to the most vigorous measures. The district of La Vendée, the provinces of Brittany and Normandy and the cities of Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Nismes and Montauban were all in revolt against the Convention; and at one time seventy out of the eighty-three Departments of France were in a state of insurrection; but the tremendous energy of the Paris Revolutionists finally broke the power of this formidable league.

The Convention's Levy en masse.

The Convention ordered a levy *en-masse* of all the citizens of France to repel foreign invasion. Said Danton: "Let us respond to the call. It is by the sound of cannon that the constitution must be proclaimed to our foes. The time is come for that great and final vow by which we devote ourselves to death or the annihilation of tyrants!"

After the vow had been taken, the orator Barrere, in the name of the Committee of Public Safety, proposed rigorous measures, which were adopted by the Convention. All the youth of France from the age of eighteen to twenty-five years took up arms, and ere long the Republic had fourteen armies amounting to twelve hundred thousand men.

Terror and the Law against the Suspected.

Terror was brought into operation to provide for the maintenance and subsistence of these armies. The middle classes were overwhelmed by violent and multiplied requisitions, death being the penalty of resistance. The National Convention passed a *Law against the Suspected,*

which destroyed the last vestige of personal security and placed the life of every person in France at the disposal of Revolutionary populace and their bloodthirsty leaders.

Committee of Public Safety and Revolutionary Tribunal.

The Committee of Public Safety was composed of ten of the extreme leaders of the Mountain; Robespierre, Couthon, St. Just, Collot d'Herbois, Billand-Varennes, Barrere and Carnot being the most prominent members of the committee. The envious and malignant Robespierre, the bloodthirsty Couthon and the fanatical republican St. Just formed a terrible triumvirate in the very heart of the committee. Carnot took no active part in the proscriptions, but directed his genius to the management of the military affairs. The Revolutionary Tribunal, consisting of twelve jurymen and five judges, seconded the activity of the Committee of Public Safety by a cruel administration of justice; and that bloodhound, Fouquier Tinville, held the office of public accuser.

The Convention and the Constitution of the Year I.

The National Convention was now nothing more than an assembly of executioners and assassins. To hoodwink and deceive the French people, the Convention submitted for their approval the plan of a constitution drawn up by Herault de Sechelles, June 24, 1793; according to which the Primary Assemblies of the people were to exercise the sovereignty and to deliberate on all legislative measures; but the whole power was in the hands of the Committee of Public Safety after the fall of the Girondists. For a time Danton and Camille Desmoulins, as chiefs of the Cordeliers club, had the most influence; but these men were soon supplanted by Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just, the chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety. The *Constitution of the Year I.*, adopted by the Convention on the 24th or June, 1793, had been ratified by the Primary Assemblies; but on August 28th of the same year Robespierre, as head of the Committee of Public Safety, decreed that it should be suspended, as the Republic was in a state of revolution until peace was restored.

The Reign of Terror.

During the *Reign of Terror*, in 1793–'94, unhappy France—torn by factions, rent by civil war, invaded by foreign enemies, threatened with famine, suffering from bankruptcy, cursed with atheism—presented a picture beyond our powers of description. The Committee of Public Safety, the Revolutionary Tribunal, the Paris Commune, the Revolutionary committees, the Jacobin clubs and the bloodthirsty Sans-Culottes disposed of the lives of all who were opposed or indifferent to the cause of *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité.* Royalists, Girondists, aristocrats, the wealthy, the refined, the educated and all suspected persons were in constant danger. The frightful Law against the Suspected was rigorously enforced against all "enemies of the country"; and two hundred thousand suspected persons were arrested throughout

MARIE ANTOINETTE LEAVING THE CONCIERGERIE

From the Painting by Georges Cain

France and imprisoned, and led in crowds to the guillotine daily in Paris and in the other large cities of France. Thus while France became a camp for one portion of its people it became a prison for another portion. The neglect of agriculture and the ruin of the public credit threatened to tear the unhappy country to pieces. Each needy person received forty sous per day for attending the assemblies of his Section. Certificates of citizenship were distributed, and each Section had its Revolutionary committees and its Sans-Culottes.

Execution of Generals Beauharnais, Custine, Houchard and Biron.

The guillotine was used as an incentive to patriotism, and the National Convention placed the alternative of victory or death before its generals. General Beauharnais was guillotined for his failure to arrive in time to prevent the recapture of Mayence by the Prussians. General Custine suffered the same fate for his retreat from the Rhine before the superior forces of the Austrians and Prussians and for his failure to prevent the capture of Valenciennes and Condé by the Austrians under Clairfait. General Houchard, who had defeated the British under the Duke of York at Hondtschoot, perished in the same manner for afterward retreating before the superior force of the enemy. General Biron was likewise guillotined for being defeated by the Vendean insurgents.

Trial and Execution of Marie Antoinette.

The ex-queen Marie Antoinette—"the Widow Capet," as the Jacobins called her—was brought to trial on charges which were false and malignant so far as they affected her character. During her trial she displayed a firmness and strength of character worthy of her education and her high birth. She was led to the guillotine October 16, 1793, and died with heroism and resignation. Her son, the youthful Louis XVII., died beneath the cruel treatment of his Jacobin jailors. Her daughter, the Duchess of Angoulême, lived some years, carrying an embittered spirit to her grave, inflamed with deadly hatred of the men of the Revolution.

Execution of Bailly, Madame Roland and Other Girondist Leaders.

The heroic Bailly, the old Mayor of Paris, died by the guillotine a few days after the queen. The twenty-one proscribed Girondists were guillotined October 31, 1793, and they advanced to death singing the *Marseillaise*. Those Girondist leaders who had escaped from Paris to the provinces were hunted to death with tiger-like ferocity. Madame Roland—who was looked upon as the soul of the Girondist party, and at whose house the Girondist leaders were accustomed to meeting—was also condemned to death; and on being led to the guillotine she exclaimed: "O, Liberty! what crimes are committed in thy name!" Her husband committed suicide on hearing the news of her execution. Pétion, Barbaroux, Condorcet and other Girondist leaders also died by their own hands. Thomas Paine, who had incurred the hatred of the Jacobins, was compelled to flee for his life.

Suicide of Roland and Other Girondist Leaders.

Execution of Philip, Duke of Orleans.

The infamous Philippe Egalitê, Duke of Orleans, who had been one of the most violent Jacobins, had incurred the wrath of the malignant Robespierre; and even Danton was unable to save him. He was accordingly led to the guillotine November 7, 1793, amid the execration of all parties. He also died bravely. Madame du Barri, the former mistress of the dissolute Louis XV., experienced the same fate; as did also Barnave.

Carnival of Executions.

So frequent were the executions that death lost its terrors. The malicious slander of an enemy, the accusation of a spy, the hatred of a Sans-Culotte, were sufficient to bring an innocent person to prison, and from prison to the guillotine. All France seemed to be turned into a hell and its Jacobin rulers into devils. Amid this carnival of blood and terror women sat and knit without the least concern.

Abolition of the Gregorian Calendar and the Christian Era.

The National Convention abolished the Gregorian calendar and the names of the months and days; as it had already abolished the Christian era and made the new era date from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. The year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each. The remaining five days were called *sans-culottides* and were consecrated to genius, to labor, to actions, etc.

Abolition of the Sabbath and the Christian Religion.

Infidelity and atheism reigned supreme. The National Convention abolished the Sabbath, and the leaders of the Paris Commune declared that they intended "to dethrone the King of Heaven as well as the monarchs of the earth." Finally, November 10, 1793, the leaders of the Paris Commune—Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro and the Prussian Anacharsis Clootz—prevailed upon the National Convention to decree the abolition of the Christian religion in France and the substitution of the worship of Reason instead. Momoro's young and beautiful but prostitute wife, who had been a dancer, personated the Goddess of Reason; and as such she was enthroned on the high altar of the Cathedral of Notre Dame and worshipped by the members of the National Convention and the Paris Commune.

Goddess of Reason.

Profanation of the Cathedral of Notre Dame and Other Sacrilege.

Desecration of the Royal Tombs at St. Denis.

Gobel, the constitutional Bishop of Paris, and several other ecclesiastics were compelled publicly to apostatize from Roman Catholic Christianity and to accept the new worship of Reason. While the Cathedral of Notre Dame was thus profaned by being converted into a temple of atheism, the other Catholic churches were plundered and subjected to every kind of sacrilege, and the mass vestments and church ornaments and implements were carried throught the streets in blasphemous processions. Over all the public cemeteries was placed the inscription: "Death is an eternal sleep." The tombs of the French kings at St. Denis were violated, and the remains of the dead monarchs were cast into a common ditch, so that the people might forget every

vestige of royalty. Such were the crowning acts of that Reign of Terror which cost the lives of more than a million Frenchmen.

Royalist and Girondist Insurrections.

While the most shocking excesses were perpetrated by the French republicans, and while the armies of almost all the other European nations were on the French frontiers, the royalists and Girondists had risen in various parts of France to oppose the National Convention, the Jacobin clubs, the Revolutionary committees and the bloodthirsty Sans-Culottes. The beautiful district of La Vendée, in the West of France, was the seat of a bloody civil war.

Insurrection of La Vendee.

In their primitive simplicity and rural quietude, the inhabitants of La Vendée, who had preserved their feudal customs and prejudices, and who had always been firmly attached to their king and their landlords, their clergy and church usages, had opposed the Revolution from the beginning, and were intensely enraged by the banishment or murder of their unsworn priests and by their king's cruel death by the guillotine. Finally, when the National Convention ordered a levy *en masse* to repel foreign invasion, the peasants of La Vendée flew to arms against the Republic; and, under such brave leaders as the wagoner Cathelineau, the gamekeeper Stofflet, the naval officer Charette and the nobles Larochejacquelin, D'Elbée and Bonchamps, they entered the field in the royalist cause.

Vendean Victories and Armies.

The Vendeans defeated the troops of the line and the National Guard which marched against them, overthrowing the republican generals in succession simply by their passionate bravery. They raised three armies of from ten to twelve thousand men each—the Army of Anjou, under Bonchamps, on the banks of the Loire; the Grand Army of the Center, under D'Elbée; and the Army of the Marsh, under Charette, occupying Lower Vendée.

Vendean Victory at Saumur, Repulse at Nantes and Later Victories.

By June, 1793, the Vendeans had possession of Bressuire, Argenton and Thouars. Forty thousand of their troops won a brilliant victory at Saumur, on the south bank of the Loire, in the old province of Anjou, capturing eighty pieces of cannon, ten thousand muskets and eleven thousand prisoners, June 9, 1793; but they were repulsed in their attack on Nantes, where their brave leader, Cathelineau, was mortally wounded, June 29, 1793. They then fell back beyond the Loire, and defeated in succession the republican armies under Biron, Rossignol and Canclaux, whom they drove back out of their territory with heavy loss.

Subsequent Vendean Victories.

Thereupon the National Convention sent an army of two hundred thousand men into La Vendée under Westermann and such frantic Jacobins as Ronsin and Rossignol; but the republican forces were defeated in detail—seventeen thousand men of the old French garrison of Mayence, under the command of Kleber, being defeated near Tor-

fou; and before the close of September the republican forces were driven out of La Vendée.

Vendean Defeats. The National Convention again made the most vigorous exertions to suppress the Vendean insurrection. The republican forces under Westermann, Beysser, L'Echelle, Kleber, Marceau, Ronsin and Rossignol overran La Vendée and ravaged the district with fire and sword, sparing neither age nor sex. Towns, villages and woods were set on fire by the invaders, who sought to crush the Vendeans by terror and outrage. Kleber's veterans finally overcame the Vendean insurgents, who were beaten four times at Chatillon and Cholet, where their principal leaders were wounded.

Vendean Appeal for British Aid. Surrounded on every side by their triumphant enemies, the heroic Vendeans appealed for aid to the British, who demanded, as a preliminary to sending relief, that the Vendeans should possess themselves of some seaport. Thereupon a hundred thousand Vendeans, including old men, women and children, crossed the Loire into Brittany, October 17–19, 1793, and marched toward Granville with the hope of obtaining supplies from England.

Vendean Victory at Chateau Gontier. On the very day that the orator Barrere announced in the National Convention that "the war is ended and La Vendée is no more," the Vendeans defeated the republican troops at Chateau Gontier with a loss of twelve thousand men and nineteen pieces of cannon. This republican disaster caused intense consternation in Paris, as nothing remained to prevent the victorious Vendean royalists from advancing on the capital.

Vendean Defeats at Granville, Mans and Savenay. After their great victory the Vendeans proceeded to the coast and laid siege to Granville, but were repulsed from that seaport through their want of artillery and were compelled to retreat with heavy loss. They were routed at Mans, December 10, 1793, and were entirely destroyed in an effort to recross the Loire at Savenay, December 22, 1793, where they fought with unyielding valor to the very last, slowly melting away in the midst of their foes. Out of the hundred thousand Venedeans who crossed the Loire into Brittany, scarcely three thousand returned to La Vendée; and most of these were captured by their pursuers or perished on the scaffold.

Vendean Defeats. Charette continued his resistance to the republican forces; but the island of Noirmoutiers was taken from him, January 2, 1794, the brave D'Elbée being there taken prisoner. Charette was afterward defeated at Machecoult, and the valiant Larochejacquelin was assassinated.

Subjugation and Desolation of La Vendee. La Vendée was reduced to submission for the time, and a system of extermination was commenced against the vanquished inhabitants. General Thureau surrounded the conquered province with sixteen in-

trenched camps and twelve movable columns known as the *infernal columns*, and traversed the country with fire and sword. The National Convention in the meantime had assigned the work of vengeance to a wretch named Carrier, whose drownings of Vendeans at Nantes were so constant that the waters of the Loire became poisoned, thus rendering the fish unfit for food; and no less than fifteen thousand persons perished by his orders during the last three months of 1793.

Girondist Revolt of Brittany Normandy and Crushed.

The troops of the National Convention were also engaged in suppressing other frightful insurrections against the Reign of Terror. The inhabitants of Brittany and Normandy had arisen in support of the unfortunate Girondist leaders, but were soon subdued by the Convention's troops, who filled that beautiful region with slaughter and desolation; and, under the direction of Lebon, the guillotine had its thousands of victims at Caen and other places in the North of France.

Insurrections in the South of France.

The royalist and Girondist insurrections in the South of France had their centers at Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles and Toulon. Bordeaux was speedily reduced to submission, August 25, 1793; and, under the direction of Tallien, the guillotine did its frightful executions in that beautiful city. General Carteaux suppressed the revolt in Marseilles, and the most frightful executions followed there also.

Royalist and Girondist Insurrection of Lyons Crushed.

The revolt at Lyons was caused by the conduct of Chalier, who had formerly been a priest and who was then president of the Jacobin club of that city. He excited the populace of Lyons by scandalous placards to plunder and destroy the "aristocrats." This instigation to violence exasperated the wealthy and respectable people of Lyons, and they caused the demagogue to be executed, July 16, 1793. This deed aroused the fury of the terrorists at Paris, and the enraged National Convention soon surrounded Lyons with a powerful army under Kellerman. The royalists and Girondists of Lyons defended their city to the last extremity. After a vigorous siege of several months, Lyons surrendered to the besieging republican army of sixty thousand men under Doppet, Kellerman's successor, October 9, 1793. The conquered city suffered a terrible punishment for its revolt.

Dreadful Punishment of Lyons by Order of the Convention.

The orator Barrere prevailed upon the National Convention to issue an anathema against Lyons. In this speech Barrere said that the name of Lyons ought to be blotted out; that the city should be called *Commune Affranchie*, and that a monument should be erected upon the ruins of the rebellious city to commemorate the crime and punishment of the enemies of liberty, with the inscription: "Lyons made war on liberty. Lyons is no more." The bloodhounds Frèron, Fouché, Couthon and Collot d'Herbois, who were intrusted by the National Convention with the execution of its decrees against Lyons, caused the finest buildings of the beautiful city to be utterly demolished, and

caused the inhabitants to be mown down in crowds with grape and canister in the public squares. During the five months after the surrender of the city over six thousand of the people of Lyons were guillotined and more than twelve thousand were exiled.

Royalist Insurrection of Toulon.

The royalists of Toulon proclaimed Louis XVII., August 29, 1793, and were assisted in their defense by the British and Spanish fleets under Admirals Hood and Langara, which had been cruising off their coast when the revolt broke out. The city was soon besieged by the republican army under General Carteaux. Confident in the aid of their British and Spanish allies and in the strength of their walls, the royalists of Toulon bade defiance to the republican troops. But the army of Sans-Culottes which besieged the city overcame all resistance.

Napoleon Bonaparte at the Siege of Toulon.

The artillery of the republican army besieging Toulon was directed by the young Corsican Napoleon Bonaparte, who now for the first time exhibited his great military talents. This youth was the son of Charles Bonaparte, a lawyer of Ajaccio, in Corsica, and was born in 1769, the very year in which Corsica came into the possession of France. He was educated at the military school at Brienne, in France, and was a young lieutenant of artillery when the struggle between Revolutionary France and the crowned heads of Europe broke out. By the exertions of this young Corsican officer, a fort commanding the harbor of Toulon was taken, thus rendering the town untenable; whereupon the British and Spanish fleets speedily evacuated the city, taking with them over fourteen thousand of the unfortunate inhabitants, December 20, 1793; and the republican army under General Carteaux took Toulon by storm, December 24, 1793. Toulon also suffered a frightful punishment from Frèron, who caused all the wealthy citizens to be shot and divided their property among the Sans-Culottes.

Subjugation and Bloody Punishment of Toulon.

French Military Enthusiasm.

While the French National Convention was thus successful in suppressing the numerous insurrections against its authority during the year 1793, the armies of the French Republic, under the command of its new Jacobin generals, who had been appointed to supersede the Girondist commanders, were everywhere triumphant over the foreign invaders of France. This improvement of the military fortunes of the Republic was the result of the unity and system given to the French military operations after the brave and active Carnot had taken his seat in the Committee of Public Safety. All France was interested in the war by the levy *en masse*, and the newly-acquired freedom awakened courage and enthusiasm among the French troops. The fanatical bands of French troops were now opposed to their allied foes in masses, and no longer in small divisions; while the greatest commanders of the century rose from the French ranks. The allied generals, with their antiquated tactics and with soldiers who fought for

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pay, could not maintain their ground against fanatical republican troops who fought for liberty and native land.

French Victories over the Allied Armies in 1793.

On the northern frontier the French army under General Jourdan, the guillotined Houchard's successor, defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg at Wattignies, thus compelling the Austrian force under General Clairfait to raise the siege of Maubeuge. On the Rhine the Prussians, after recapturing Mayence, July 22, 1793, and defeating the French army under Moreau at Pirmasens, September 14, 1793, failed in the siege of Landau. An allied Austrian, Prussian and German imperial army of eighty thousand men under Wurmser and Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick forced the lines at Weissemburg, October 13, 1793, and marched into Alsace as far as Strassbourg, but were driven back by the French army of the Moselle under Generals Hoche and Pichegru. The French army of the Alps under Kellerman was also successful against the Sardinians. On the side of the Pyrenees the Spanish forces under Ricardos and Ventura-Caro gained several advantages; Ricardos taking Bellegarde, Collioure and Port Vendre. Thus the campaign of 1793 ended in the general success of the French arms against the numerous forces of the allies, and the invasion of France on all sides was defeated; while the numerous insurrections against the Revolutionary power were suppressed.

The Jacobins, the Commune and the Cordeliers.

The Revolutionary territories were divided into three parties. The Committee of Public Safety, at the head of which stood Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just, supported by the Jacobin club, constituted the "party of justice" and governed with absolute power. The Paris Commune, headed by Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro and the Prussian Anacharsis Clootz, formed a second party, consisting of the most ultra-Revolutionists and violent anarchists, who desired still greater excesses of profanation and destruction. Danton and Camille Desmoulins, the chiefs of the Cordeliers, headed the "party of clemency," which now became disgusted with the rage and cruelty of the Jacobins and desired to end the Reign of Terror.

Danton, Camille Desmoulins and the Cordeliers Doomed by Robespierre and the Jacobins.

Danton was more of a voluptuary than a tyrant and was capable of generous feelings. Having grown weary of slaughter, he had retired into the country for a few months with a young wife, to enjoy the wealth and happiness which he had acquired through the Revolution. But Camille Desmoulins, in his widely-circulated and much-read journal, *The Old Cordelier*, applied the passages in which the Roman historian Tacitus described the tyranny and cruelty of the Emperor Tiberius to his own times with such appropriateness that there could be no mistake as to its application to the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety and the Laws against the Suspected. This enraged the Jacobins, headed by Robespierre; and, as several of Danton's partisans

—Fabre d'Eglantine, Chabot and others—were at this time guilty of deceit and corruption in connection with the abolition of the French East India Company, the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, resolved upon the destruction of the whole party of the Dantonists, who were now the "party of clemency."

Hebert and the Commune Doomed by Robespierre.

Before destroying the Dantonists, whom he denounced as lukewarm in the cause of liberty, Robespierre determined upon the annihilation of the faction of the Commune, whom he reproached as anarchists and atheists. In order to effect the overthrow of the Commune, Robespierre and his partisans entered into a temporary alliance with the "party of clemency," which was headed by Danton and Camille Desmoulins.

Execution of the Hebertists.

When Danton had resumed his seat in the National Convention, St. Just began a violent struggle by a remarkable declaration in which he divided the enemies of the Republic into three classes—the corrupt, the ultra-revolutionary and the moderates—and insisted upon their punishment. This action resulted in bringing Hebert, Chaumette, Momoro, Clootz, Ronsin and the other anarchist chiefs of the Commune—nineteen in number—to the guillotine, March 24, 1794.

Fall and Execution of the Dantonists.

One week after the execution of the ultra-Revolutionists of the Commune, "the corrupt" were placed before the Revolutionary Tribunal, March 31, 1794; and Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Herault de Sechelles and their partisans were maliciously distinguished as such, and their doom was sealed. But Danton and Camille Desmoulins, supported by a raging mob, vehemently demanded that their accusers should be confronted with them. Danton's voice of thunder and the tumult among the populace prevented his condemnation for three days, and for the first time the bloody monsters of the Revolutionary Tribunal became embarrassed. At length the National Convention summarily gave the Revolutionary Tribunal the power to condemn, without any further hearing, the accused who sought to subvert the Revolutionary power by means of an insurrection. Thereupon Danton, Camille Desmoulins and twelve of their adherents in the National Convention were led to the guillotine, April 5, 1794. They died with courage and resolution. On being dragged to execution, Danton exclaimed: "I drag Robespierre! Robespierre follows me!"

Excesses of the Triumphant Jacobins.

For the next four months the Committee of Public Safety, headed by Robespierre, ruled with the most absolute sway, and the Revolutionary excesses of the Reign of Terror increased throughout France. For some time no voice was raised against the decemvirs composing that terrible Revolutionary committee, and the National Convention decreed that terror and all the virtues were the order of the day. During those four terrible months the power of the Revolutionary commit-

tees, the Jacobin clubs and the Sans-Culottes was exercised without restraint; and death by the guillotine became the sole instrument of government.

Atrocities throughout France.

During this hideous period the Proconsuls Carrier, Lebon and Maignet distinguished themselves by unheard-of atrocities in the provinces—the first at Nantes, the second at Arras and the third in Orange. In Paris alone the guillotine had fourteen hundred victims during those bloody four months; among whom were the old Marshals de Noailles and de Maille, the Ministers Michaud and Laverdi, the famous mathematician and astronomer Lavoisier, the venerable Malesherbes and his family, D'Epremenil, Thouret and Chapelier, all members of the National, or Constituent Assembly which had met in 1789, and, finally, the Madame Elizabeth, the angelic sister of Louis XVI., who was guillotined May 10, 1794. Said Collot d'Herbois: "The more the body-social perspires the more healthy it becomes."

Execution of Marshal de Noailles, Lavoisier, Malesherbes and Madame Elizabeth.

Robespierre and the Recognition of a Supreme Being.

Robespierre and St. Just announced their intention to establish the reign of virtue, and associated Couthon with them; and this terrible triumvirate in the very heart of the Committee of Public Safety prepared for its own ruin by its very isolation. Robespierre was well aware that social order must rest on a religious foundation, and he was never an atheist. He accordingly caused a resolution to be passed by the National Convention, in May, 1794, declaring that the French nation recognized the existence of a Supreme Being and the immortality of the soul as truths. He afterward caused the Convention to dedicate festivals to the Supreme Being and to some of the virtues. As his followers considered him the founder of a moral democracy, he acquired supreme power; and he officiated as high-priest at the festival in honor of the Supreme Being, in the Tuileries, on the 20th Prairial, June 9, 1794, which was a day of perfect triumph for him. He marched at the head of the Convention, as its president, carrying flowers and ears of corn, and approached the altar, where he harangued the populace.

Execrable Law and Increased Proscriptions.

On the very next day—21st Prairial, June 10, 1794—Robespierre caused Couthon to propose an execrable law in the National Convention, refusing to accused persons the right to employ counsel, ordering them to be tried in mass instead of singly, and prescribing to juries no other law than that of their consciences. The Convention passed this monstrous law; yet Fouquier Tinville, the public accuser, and his associates, the judges belonging to the Revolutionary Tribunal, were unable to keep pace with the number of the proscribed. Fifty persons were sent to the guillotine daily in Paris alone. The scaffold was removed to the Faubourg St. Antoine, and a sewer was constructed to receive and carry off the blood of the victims.

Campaign of 1794.

The campaign of 1794 had commenced under this system. The Austrians under the Prince of Coburg had marched against the towns on the Somme; and General Pichegru with the French army of the North, numbering fifty thousand men, had planned the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands. He marched into Flanders, supported on the right by General Moreau; while the French army of the Moselle under General Jourdan advanced toward Charleroi to effect a junction with Pichegru's army. The Austrians abandoned their position in great alarm, and Pichegru defeated the British and Dutch under the Duke of York and the Austrians under Clairfait at Courtrai and at Hooglede; while Jourdan defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg in the great battle of Fleurus, June 26, 1794. Thereupon the towns in the Austrian Netherlands surrendered to the French, who thus effected the conquest of those possessions of the House of Hapsburg, and gained possession of the frontier fortresses of Holland by the fall of 1794. In the meantime the French army of the Pyrenees under General Dugommier gained a brilliant victory over the Spaniards under General La Union at Ceret, April 30, 1794, and retook Bellegarde.

Battle of Fleurus and French Conquest of the Austrian Netherlands.

British Naval Victories.

After the reduction of Toulon by the republican army, the British fleet under Admiral Hood was invited to Corsica by Pascal Paoli, and on June 18, 1794, took possession of that island, which submitted to Great Britain as an independent kingdom. The British fleet under Lord Howe defeated the French fleet under Admiral Villaret Joyeuse off Ushant, on the western coast of France, June 1, 1794. Most of the French possessions in the West Indies had already been conquered by the British.

Robespierre's Enemies.

The triumvirate in the Committee of Public Safety had already lost the confidence of the populace and of the National Convention. The remaining Dantonists were on the lookout for a favorable moment of attack, and Robespierre increased the number of his enemies and made himself ridiculous by his proceedings at the festival in honor of the Supreme Being on the 20th Prairial.

Their Secret Plot against Him.

Every life in France was at the mercy of Robespierre, who had caused fourteen hundred persons to be guillotined in less than seven weeks after he had gained absolute control of the Revolutionary Tribunal on the 21st Prairial, June 10, 1794. It was uncertain who were to be the next victims, and several of the most prominent terrorists resolved to bring the Reign of Terror to a close. Robespierre received intimations which alarmed him.

His Secret Proscription List.

A secret proscription-list was discovered containing the names of some of the most prominent members of the National Convention—Tallien, Bourdon de l'Oise, Legendre, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud-Varennes, Barrere, Vadier, Frèron, Fouché, Voulant, Amar and others. As

Robespierre had secretly determined on the destruction of these men they united for his overthrow and resolved to be beforehand with him. Tallien, the leader of the struggle against Robespierre, had been a prominent Jacobin and had caused great numbers to be executed at Bordeaux after the suppression of the revolt there in 1793. He had been induced to desert the Jacobin cause by the fascinating Fontenay Cabarrus.

Tallien's Plot against Him.

On the 9th Thermidor, July 27, 1794, a life-and-death struggle occurred in the National Convention. Robespierre had that day resolved to end the contest by the destruction of those whom he had proscribed. St. Just ascended the tribune, but was interrupted by Tallien and Billaud-Varennes, who began the struggle. Robespierre rushed forward to reply, but he and his adherents were not allowed to speak. His voice was drowned amid the cries of "Down with the tyrant" and the noise of the bell which the president of the Convention, Thuriot, rang incessantly.

Struggle of the Ninth Thermidor.

Tallien denounced Robespierre as a usurper and a tyrant, as another Cromwell, and threatened to thrust a poniard into his heart. Tallien caused the Convention to pass a decree for the arrest of Henriot, the commander of the National Guard. He also caused the Convention to vote a declaration that its session was permanent. Barrere caused the Convention to place itself under the protection of the armed Sections. Said Tallien: "Now let us return to the tyrant!" He then denounced Robespierre more severely, amid the applause and with the approval of the great majority of the whole Convention, who by this time had become tired of the monster.

Tallien's Denunciation of Robespierre.

Robespierre made repeated efforts to speak, and ascended and descended the tribune; but his voice was always drowned by the cries of "Down with the tyrant" and the ringing of the president's bell. At length, in a moment of silence, he cried out: "President of assassins, will you allow me to speak?" The president's bell again sounded; whereupon Robespierre raved and stormed like a madman, flying from bench to bench and appealing earnestly to the members of the right, who turned from him with loathing. Finally he sank back into his seat, perfectly exhausted with fatigue and foaming at the mouth. Said a member of the Mountain: "Wretch! the blood of Danton chokes thee."

Robespierre Not Allowed to Speak.

Robespierre's arrest was then proposed. His brother and Lebas demanded to share his fate. The Convention accordingly ordered that the three chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety—Robespierre, St. Just and Couthon—and their confederate Henriot should be arrested and conveyed by the gens d'armes as prisoners to the Luxembourg Palace.

Robespierre, St. Just and Couthon Arrested.

The Jacobin Club, the Paris Commune and the National Guard Rise in Their Defense.

But this did not end the struggle. As the center of Robespierre's power was in the Jacobin club, he was secure in the support of the lower orders; while Fleuriot, the Mayor of Paris, and the Revolutionary Tribunal were his creatures. The Paris Commune and the National Guard under Henriot were also devoted to him. The leaders of the Paris Commune proceeded to their assembly; and Henriot, before his arrest, traversed the street, sword in hand, shouting to arms. The Paris Commune and the National Guard accordingly armed in the defense of the arrested chiefs of the Committee of Public Safety.

Their Release by the Mob.

In the evening the mob marched in a body to the Luxembourg Palace and released Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon and Henriot. Henriot instantly caused the National Guard to surround the Tuileries, where the Convention was in session, and to point their cannon toward the building. Terror reigned within the Convention, but the members of that body were inspired with courage by their imminent danger.

Henriot and His Mob Outlawed by the Convention.

The Convention outlawed Henriot. His cannoniers refused to fire, and fell back with him to the Hôtel de Ville. This retreat decided the issue of the contest. The Convention resumed the offensive, attacked the Commune and outlawed the rebel leaders. General Barras was appointed commander-in-chief of the armed force of the Convention. The battalions of the Sections swore to defend the Convention, and filed in the chamber before it, animated by Frèron. Said Tallien to the chief of the civic force: "Set forward, lest the day appear before the heads of the conspirators are stricken off."

The Convention's Armed Bands March against the Hotel de Ville.

At midnight the Convention's armed bands marched against the Hôtel de Ville, whither the armed mob of the Paris Commune had borne Robespierre and his arrested companions in triumph, and where he now sat motionless and paralyzed by terror. Detachments of the National Guard, companies of cannoniers, squadrons of gens d'armes and the armed mob of the Commune were stationed in front of the Hôtel de Ville for the defense of Robespierre and his associates.

Robespierre Deserted by His Supporters.

The Convention's troops marched with their cannon in silence, their courage sustained by the grandeur of their mission. Leonard Bourdon, who led the attack as assistant to General Barras, caused the Convention's decree of outlawry against Robespierre and his confederates to be read to their armed supporters, most of whom then deserted to the forces of the Convention. Bourdon still hesitated to advance, as a rumor had been circulated that the Hôtel de Ville had been undermined and that Robespierre and his companions and followers in the building would blow it and themselves into the air rather than surrender.

Uproar and Panic in the Hotel de Ville.

In the meantime the utmost uproar prevailed in the Hôtel de Ville, whose occupants were distracted by irresolution and contradictory resolutions. Robespierre had never wielded a saber. St. Just had

dishonored his. The drunken Henriot did not know what to do. The guards of the Commune, who had been accustomed to march to the perpetration of crimes, were stunned when they found themselves attacked. All seemed to expect death, without having sufficient energy to strive to avert it by securing victory.

Robespierre Thoroughly Deserted.

Payen read to the conspirators the Convention's decree of outlawry, and artfully included the names of all those in the gallery who were applauding their proceedings. This ruse succeeded perfectly, and the noisy supporters of the condemned leaders made haste to put themselves beyond the reach of danger, thus clearing the galleries. Robespierre's partisans now received a melancholy proof of how thoroughly they were deserted.

Henriot's Consternation and Despair of the Terrorists.

Henriot descended the stairs in consternation to harangue his cannoniers, upon whose fidelity all then depended. But the Convention's sentence of outlawry had dispersed them all, and the place was thoroughly deserted. In their stead Henriot perceived only the heads of the columns of the National Guard advancing in battle array. He reascended the stairs with terror in his looks and imprecations in his mouth, and announced the total defection of the troops upon whom he and the other condemned terrorists had depended. That band of monsters who had sent thousands to the guillotine instantly gave way to terror and despair, and every one vented his fury on his neighbor. Northing but mutual execrations could be heard. Some tried to hide, others to escape.

Desperation of the Condemned Terrorists.

Infuriated by a transport of rage, Coffinhall siezed Henriot in his arms and threw him out of the window, exclaiming: "Vile wretch! your cowardice has undone us all!" His fall was so broken by a dunghill on which he fell that his life was spared for the punishment which he so richly deserved. Lebas seized a pistol and blew out his brains. Robespierre endeavored to do the same, but his hand trembled, and he succeeded only in breaking his lower jaw and disfiguring himself in a shocking manner. St. Just was found with a poniard in his hand, but he lacked the courage to plunge it into his bosom. Couthon crept into a sewer, from which he was dragged by the heels. Robespierre's younger brother threw himself out of the window, but survived his fall.

Seizure and Condemnation of Robespierre and His Companions.

The Convention's supporters broke into the Hôtel de Ville, traversed its deserted apartments, seized Robespierre and his companions and conveyed them in triumph to the Convention. Robespierre was ordered to be taken to the Place de la Revolution. He was placed for some time with the Committee of General Welfare before he was taken to the Conciergerie. There he was stretched upon a table with a bloody and disfigured countenance, subjected to the view, to the invectives and

to the curses of the spectators, while he beheld the different parties rejoicing over his fall and reproaching him with the crimes which he had committed. He exhibited great insensibility to the excessive pain which he experienced. He was conveyed to the Conciergerie, whence he was brought before the Revolutionary Tribunal, which condemned him and his associates to death.

Execution of Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot and Others.

About five o'clock in the evening, 10th Thermidor, July 28, 1794, Robespierre ascended the death-cart and was placed between Henriot and Couthon. Robespierre's head was bound in a bloody cloth. His face was livid and his eye was almost sightless. A vast multitude gathered around the death-cart, with the most vehement demonstrations of joy. They congratulated each other and embraced each other. They came closer to the cart to obtain a better view of him and showered him with imprecations. The gens d'armes pointed him out with their swords. He seemed to look upon the multitude with pity. St. Just beheld the crowd with an unmoved eye. The others were more dejected. Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon, Henriot and eighteen others were guillotined amid the shouts of the populace. Robespierre was the last to ascend the scaffold. His head fell amid the most enthusiastic applause, thus proclaiming that the Reign of Terror was ended, and France breathed freely once more. On the following two days seventy-two other terrorists shared the same fate.

Two New Parties in the Convention.

There was still a numerous and powerful party of terrorists in the National Convention, as well as in Paris and throughout France; and two new parties were soon formed—that of the Revolutionary committees which depended for support upon the Jacobin clubs and upon the faubourgs; and that of the Thermidorians, composed of those members of the Mountain who had contributed with Tallien to the victory of the 9th Thermidor in the Convention which sent Robespierre and his partisans to the guillotine, and who relied for support upon the majority of the Convention and the armed Sections.

Reaction against the Reign of Terror.

Although the "Tail of Robespierre," as the remaining terrorists were called, appeared more difficult to tame than Robespierre himself, the reaction had rapidly set in after his execution, and moderation gradually obtained the ascendency. The Jacobins and Sans-Culottes were gradually deprived of their power. The assemblies of the people were limited by degrees, and the populace were deprived of their weapons.

Overthrow of the Jacobins.

At the call of Frèron, who was converted from a republican bloodhound into an aristocrat, many of the young men from the middle classes, called from their clothing *jeunesse dorée*, "the gilded youth," attacked the Jacobins in the streets and at their clubs with loaded bludgeons, carrying on a war of extermination against them and sing-

ing the song of *The Awakening of the People* in opposition to the *Marseillaise*. The cloister of the Jacobin club was at length taken and its doors were closed, after a desperate struggle, during which Paris resembled one vast battlefield.

End of the Reign of Terror.

The National Convention strengthened itself by recalling the seventy-three members who had been expelled for protesting against the imprisonment of the Girondist leaders, released ten thousand of the suspected from the Paris prisons alone, rescinded the decrees for the banishment of the nobles and the priests and for the death of British and Hanoverian prisoners, restored public worship, suppressed the *maximum*, ordered the statue of Marat in the hall of the Convention to be broken in pieces, and sentenced the worst of the remaining terrorists in the Convention—Lebon, Carrier, Fouquier Tinville and others—to the guillotine.

Famine and Distress.

The reckless action of the Revolutionary government, followed by the hardship of the severe winter of 1794–'95, had produced so dreadful a scarcity that each person in Paris had to be assigned a fixed allowance of bread. As the rich were proscribed, the poor were without employment.

Depreciation of the Assignats.

The *assignats*—the paper money of the Revolution—had so depreciated that twenty-four thousand francs were paid for a load of fire-wood, and six thousand francs for a single fare in a hackney coach. As the assignats became almost worthless, very many families throughout France were ruined. The farmers avenged themselves for the oppression which they had endured by hoarding up provisions. As famine stalked through the land, the lower classes of France sighed for the system which had given them food as well as political power.

Reaction and the "White Terror."

In the provinces, particularly in the South of France, the reaction became even more violent than in Paris; and the Jacobins there became in turn the victims of wholesale massacres, called the "White Terror," to distinguish it from the "Red Terror" which they themselves had established. Almost every town of Southern France had its band of assassins, generally led by an exiled royalist or Girondist, who avenged his own wrongs by new atrocities.

Exile of Terrorists.

The National Convention condemned four members of the Committee of Public Safety—Barrere, Vadier, Collot d'Herbois and Billaud-Varennes—to banishment and sent them to the chateau of Ham, along with seventeen turbulent members of the Mountain who had been concerned in an insurrection for their release.

Jacobin Insurrection of the 11th and 12th Geminal.

The Jacobins resolved upon a struggle for their existence, and thus incited the populace of Paris to the insurrection of the 11th and 12th Geminal, March 31 and April 1, 1795. The half-starving mob surrounded the Tuileries, in which the Convention was in session, and made

menacing demands for bread, for the release of the accused members and for a return to the Reign of Terror. The mob was dispersed by General Pichegru, who was then in Paris and who had come to the aid of the distressed Convention with soldiers and citizens.

Jacobin Insurrection of the First Prairial.

In the formidable insurrection of the 1st Prairial, May 20, 1795, a mob of thirty thousand persons, composed of the populace of the faubourgs St. Antonie and St. Marceau, surrounded the National Convention for nineteen hours, from seven o'clock in the morning until two at night, for the purpose of enforcing a return to the Reign of Terror; but the insurrection was suppressed by the courageous action of Boissy d'Anglas, the president of the Convention, with the aid of some battalions of the Sections. Some of the leaders of the tumult and six of the Mountain were condemned to death, and the power of the Jacobins and of the Parisian populace terminated. Many Jacobins destroyed themselves; while others were guillotined, imprisoned or banished, thus extinguishing the last hopes of the Jacobin terrorists and enabling France to breathe freely once more.

French Success over the Austrians and Prussians.

The fall of Robespierre and the terrorists did not affect the progress of the arms of the French Republic. The campaign of 1794, like that of the preceding year, ended in the triumph of the French arms. The French army of the Rhine under General Hoche drove the Austrians under Clairfait and the Prussians under Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick across the Rhine at Philipsburg in October, 1794. After his great victory at Fleurus, June 26, 1794, Jourdan forced the Austrians back toward the Rhine, defeated them disastrously at Ruremonde, October 5, 1794, and drove them into Germany. After thus driving the Austrians from the Austrian Netherlands, the French marched into Germany and quickly occupied Cologne and Treves. Pichegru's victories had given the French full possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and their armies occupied the west bank of the Meuse and all the towns along the Rhine except Mannheim and Mayence.

French Success over the Spaniards.

On the frontier of the Pyrenees the French armies under Generals Dugommier and Moncey continued victorious after the recapture of Bellegarde by Dugommier in the spring of 1794. After a battle of three days at Monte-Nero, November 27, 1794, in which the two generals were slain, the Spaniards were repulsed by Perignon. The French took Figueres, February 4, 1795, and Rosas about two months later. The Spaniards were driven out of France; and the Western French army of the Pyrences under General Moncey invaded Spain and took Fontarabia, August 1, 1794, and San Sebastian, August 11, 1794, and defeated the Spaniards at Pampeluna, November 8, 1794, thus spreading consternation to the very gates of Madrid.

CAPTURE OF THE DUTCH FLEET AT TEXEL BY FRENCH CAVALRY DURING PICHEGRU'S INVASION

From the Painting by C. E. Delort

French Conquest of Holland.

The campaign of 1795 was opened by the French army under General Pichegru, who, favored by the rigor of winter and the intrigues of the republican, or anti-Orange party in Holland, had crossed the Meuse on the ice late in December, 1794, and defeated the British and Dutch at Nimeguen, January 11, 1795, compelling them to make a disastrous retreat. Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, January 20, 1795. The British army under the Duke of York retreated into Northern Germany to Bremen, and thence sailed to England.

Holland Converted into the Batavian Republic.

Pichegru, with his half-clad and half-starved army, took possession of the rich land, compelled the hereditary Stadtholder to flee to England, and thus revolutionized Holland, which was converted into the *Batavian Republic*, with democratic rights, Trees of Liberty and popular clubs. During the remaining period of the French Revolution, Holland was the ally of France; and French troops were fed and clothed at the expense of the country, while vast sums of money were sent to Paris to defray the expenses of the war. As Holland thus became the ally of France, war followed between Great Britain and Holland, and the Dutch colonies in the New World and in the East Indies were conquered by British fleets.

Prussia's and Austria's Designs on Poland and Elsewhere.

Most of the allied powers were subsidized by Great Britain, whose commercial interest affected by the war was greater than that of any other European power, though her political concern was less. King Frederick William II. of Prussia was absorbed in his designs upon Poland; and a powerful party in Austria, under the leading Minister, preferred a share of the spoils of ill-fated Poland, or the prosecution of the claims of the Emperor Francis II. upon Bavaria, to a war with the French Republic. Accordingly Francis II. withdrew his armies from the Austrian Netherlands and thus abandoned those provinces to the French.

Tuscany Makes Peace with France.

By capturing Mont Cenis and the passes of the Maritime Alps the French had secured the keys of Italy. Alarmed by the rapid advance of the French, the Grand Duke of Tuscany deserted the cause of his brother, the Emperor Francis II. of Germany, and retired from the First Coalition against the French Republic by signing a treaty of peace and neutrality with France, at Paris, February 9, 1795.

Peace of Basle between France and Prussia.

King Frederick William II. of Prussia, whose finances were exhausted, waited until he had received a subsidy from Great Britain to fight France, which subsidy he used against Poland, and then entered into negotiations with the French ambassador at Berlin, Barthelemy. These negotiations were concluded at Basle by Baron Hardenberg on the part of Prussia, April 5, 1795. By the Peace of Basle, Prussia retired from the European Coalition, abandoned the west bank of the Rhine, with Holland, to France, and even guaranteed the neutrality of

Frederick William III., of Prussia, A. D. 1797–1840.

the North of Germany, according to a line of demarcation from Southern Germany, this line being fixed by a special convention, May 17, 1795. Frederick William II. of Prussia died in 1797, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK WILLIAM III., who reigned forty-three years.

German Peace Treaties with France.

The year 1795 was passed chiefly in negotiations. The German Imperial Diet at Ratisbon expressed its desire for peace, and when peace was not negotiated several German princes concluded separate treaties with France through the mediation of Prussia. The Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel made peace with France at Basle, August 28, 1795.

Peace of Basle between France and Spain.

The death of the youthful Louis XVII. in his loathsome dungeon, June 8, 1795, opened the way for peace between King Charles IV. of Spain and the French Republic; for so long as the young prince lived the honor of his Spanish Bourbon kinsman demanded his release as the first condition of a treaty of peace. Just after the French army under General Moncey in Spain had defeated the Spaniards at Ormea and occupied Bilbao, the Chevalier Yriarte, as plenipotentiary of Spain, signed a treaty of peace with the French Republic at Basle, July 6, 1795. By this Peace of Basle, Spain ceded her portion of the island of San Domingo to France and recognized both the French and Batavian Republics. The worthless favorite Godoy, who ruled King Charles IV. of Spain and his court, received the title of *Prince of Peace* for his share in this treaty, which diffused unbounded joy throughout Spain.

The Chouans of La Vendee.

In the meantime the Vendeans had formed themselves into bands of insurgents in Brittany and Normandy, under the name of *Chouans*. After Larochejacquelin's death Charette and Sapineau made peace with the National Convention at Jausnaie, February 17, 1795. Cormartin, the leader of the Chouans, also concluded peace with the National Convention at Mabilais; but several weeks later the Convention caused him to be arrested and shot with seven other chiefs, thus giving rise to another insurrection in La Vendée under Charette and Stofflet.

British Aid to the Vendean Insurgents.

At length the British government resolved to send assistance to the Vendean insurgents; and, after the victory of the British fleet under Lord Bridport over the French fleet off L'Orient, June 18, 1795, three thousand French Emigrants were landed on the island or peninsula of Quiberon, where they proclaimed the Count of Provence sovereign of France with the title of Louis XVIII.; but they were reduced by General Hoche, who promised to spare their lives, but was unable to prevent the five hundred and sixty survivors, who were young men of the best families, from being shot by order of Tallien, June 21, 1795.

Massacre and Reprisal.

NAPOLEON AT BRIENNE

From the Painting by M. Realier-Dumas

Charette retaliated by the massacre of more than a thousand republicans who were in his power.

Constitution of the Year III.

The National Convention now framed the *Constitution of the Year III.*, vesting the legislative power in the *Cinq Cents*, or Council of Five Hundred, which had the power of originating laws, and the *Anciens*, or Council of Ancients, which had the power of approving or rejecting these laws. The members of these two Councils, or legislative bodies, were appointed by delegates elected for that purpose by the French people. The legislative power was vested in a *Directory* of five men, to be named by the Council of Five Hundred and confirmed by the Council of Ancients. Each of the Directors presided for a period of three months and during that time affixed the signatures and kept the seals. One Director was elected each year. The Directory had a guard and the Luxembourg Palace for its residence.

Insurrection of the Sections.

The republicans of the National Convention, fearing that the reaction in favor of monarchical principles would deprive them of political power, decreed that two-thirds of the members of the legislative Councils should be chosen from the members of the Convention. The royalists, after vainly objecting to this decree of the Convention, which limited the freedom of election, brought about the *Insurrection of the Sections*, on the 11th Vendemiaire, 3d of October, 1795.

General Barras and Napoleon Bonaparte to Defend the Convention.

The National Convention, alarmed at the popular commotion, declared its sittings permanent, summoned around it the camp of Sablous and made the first attack. But General Menou, the commander of the Convention's troops, suffered himself to be outgeneraled; and his expedition produced the same effect as a victory of the Sections. The Convention then called upon General Barras to provide for its defense. At the request of Barras, Napoleon Bonaparte, the young artillery officer who had distinguished himself under General Dugommier at the siege of Toulon, was appointed second in command.

Bonaparte's Qualifications for the Crisis.

As the young Corsican was a man of skill and resolution, he was well qualified to command in this dangerous emergency. When he appeared before the Convention's committee he did not display any of the astonishing qualities which were soon to distinguish him. As he was not much of a party man, but simply an army officer, and summoned upon this great scene for the first time, his countenance assumed an expression of timidity and bashfulness, which instantly vanished amid the bustle of preparation and the ardor of battle.

His Arrangements.

Bonaparte sent Murat hastily for the camp artillery. Murat arrived at the park in the middle of the night with hundreds of cavalrymen and brought the cannon to Bonaparte, who placed them in the avenues leading to the Tuileries and loaded them with grapeshot. The army of the Convention, which Bonaparte thus virtually commanded,

numbered five thousand men, which he disposed with their cannon to await the attack by the forty thousand armed insurgents of the Sections, under the command of Generals Danican, Duhoux and Lafon, who very soon surrounded the Convention. Upon being admitted to a parley in the Convention, Danican summoned that body to withdraw the troops and disarm the terrorists. The report of several discharges of musketry suddenly ended the deliberations on Danican's demand. Seven hundred muskets were brought into the Convention, and the members armed themselves as a body of reserve.

His Suppression of the Insurgent Sections.

The conflict began in the Rue St. Honoré and soon became general. The cannon of Bonaparte's little army discharged their grapeshot, shivering the ranks of the battalions of the Sections, who dispersed after a desperate effort to charge the cannon. After a desperate street fight of less than two hours the armed insurgents of the Sections had lost two thousand killed, and at seven in the evening the Convention's troops assumed the offensive and were victorious at every point, 13th Vendemiaire, October 5, 1795. The next day the Convention's victorious troops disarmed the Section of Lepelletier and reduced all the other Sections to submission.

Bonaparte's Reward and His Marriage with Josephine Beauharnais.

In the hall of the National Convention, General Barras frankly told the other members that the Convention's victory was due to General Bonaparte's prompt and skillful disposition of the troops, and that the Convention was indebted to that young officer for their own security and for the freedom of their deliberations. The Convention acknowledged Bonaparte's services by felicitations and acclamations, and appointed him General of Division and second in command of the Army of the Interior; Barras nominally retaining the chief command, which, however, he soon after resigned when he was appointed a member of the Directory, assigning it to his protegé, whom he familiarly styled "the little Corsican officer," and who was then only twenty-six years of age and had just married Josephine, the widow of General Beauharnais.

Organization of the Directory and End of the National Convention.

Bonaparte's victory over the Sections gave the National Convention leisure to occupy itself with the formation of the two legislative Councils. General Barras was chosen one of the five Directors, on account of his part in securing the victories of the Convention over Robespierre's armed supporters in July, 1794, and over the armed insurgents of the Sections in October, 1795. The other four Directors were Lareveillere-Lepaux, whose probity, moderation and courage had acquired for him universal confidence; Sieyès, the man of greatest reputation in his time; Rewbell, an active man in the administrative department of the state; and Letourneur, a man of some political distinction. But Sieyès declined to be made one of the Directors; and Carnot, whose political honesty and ability had saved him when the

other members of the Committee of Public Safety fell, was appointed to the vacant place in the Directory. On the 4th Brumaire, October 26, 1795, the National Convention passed an act of oblivion as the first measure of the rule of law, altered the name of the *Place de la Revolution* to that of the *Place de la Concorde*, and then adjourned *sine die*.

Review of the Convention's History.

Thus ended the National Convention, which had endured three years, from September 22, 1792, to October 26, 1795, in which the violence of the different factions changed the French Revolution into a war against royalism in Europe and the hall of the Convention into a battle-field. Each party struggled for victory to acquire the supremacy and sought to effect the establishment of its own system for the purpose of securing such victory. The Girondists, the party of the Commune, the Dantonists and the party of Robespierre successively tried and perished. These different parties gained victories, but were unable to establish their systems.

Its Final Restoration of Order.

The natural result of such a condition of affairs was the ruin of every party that sought to restore peace and order to France. Everything was merely provisional—power, men, parties, systems—because war was the only thing possible. The Convention spent the entire year from the time that it had recovered its authority in restoring the reign of law in France—an object finally accomplished by the victories of the 2d Prairial, May 21, 1795, and the 13th Vendemiaire, October 5, 1795.

Its Work Ended.

The Convention had now returned to its starting point by having effected its real design—the protection and consolidation of the French Republic. After thus astonishing the world it became a thing of the past. As a revolutionary power it began to exercise its functions as soon as law and order had given place to terror and violence, and it ended its career as soon as law and order were restored. The three years of the Convention's dictatorship had been lost to liberty, but not to the Revolution.

SECTION V.—FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC UNDER THE DIRECTORY (A. D. 1795–1799).

French Distress and Disorders.

The Directory began its administration with an empty treasury, the assignats having so depreciated that this paper currency was not worth the expense of printing it; while a starving mob had to be supported at the expense of the government. Each poor inhabitant of Paris had to subsist on two ounces of bread and a handful of rice each day, and even this miserable pittance often failed. The French army

was destitute of rations. Roads, bridges and canals had fallen into ruin during the Reign of Terror; while bands of robbers and assassins infested the country, plundering and murdering with perfect impunity.

Revival and Recuperation.

The first care of the Directory was to establish its power by honestly adopting the constitutional course. Very soon confidence, trade and commerce were restored; and the Revolutionary clubs began to be abandoned for the workshops and the fields. That period was remarkable for its great license of manners, which the voluptuous Director Barras was the first to encourage. But the rich were still subjected to violent and rapacious measures.

Forced Loan, Rescriptions and Mandats.

So great and pressing were the wants of the Republic that the new government resorted to a forced loan of six hundred million francs in specie, and replaced the assignats by another sort of paper money called *rescriptions*, which were soon discredited. It then created territorial *mandats*, which were to be used in retiring the assignats from circulation at the rate of thirty for one and in performing the office of a currency. These mandats had the advantage of being instantly exchangeable for the national domains which they represented, and furnished a momentary resource to the state; but they afterward fell into discredit, and their depreciation led to a bankruptcy amounting to thirty-three thousand million francs.

Military Situation.

When the Directory came into power the military affairs of the French Republic had become less prosperous than at any time previously. The campaign of 1795 had been retarded by the retirement of Prussia and by the scarcity which prevailed in France.

French Victories and Defeats in Germany in 1795.

The French force under Field-Marshal Bender reduced Luxemburg after a siege of eight months; and, as an abundant harvest had again brought plenty, the French army of the Sambre and the Meuse under Jourdan, and that of the Rhine and the Moselle under Pichegru, crossed the Rhine. Jourdan was beaten by the Austrians under Clairfait at Hochst, October 11, 1795, with the loss of all his artillery, ammunition and baggage; after which he recrossed the Rhine in great disorder, and the siege of Mayence by the French was raised. Pichegru took Heidelberg and Mannheim, September 22, 1795, but he also retreated; whereupon the Austrians under General Wurmser retook Heidelberg, September 24, 1795, and Mannheim also after a severe bombardment of several days, which laid a part of the town in ruins. An armistice was concluded on the last day of 1795.

Pichegru's Defection.

The failure of the French operations in Germany was owing partly to the treachery of General Pichegru, who, like Dumouriez several years before, entertained the design of restoring the throne of the Bourbons in France; but his indecisive movements only lost him the confidence of the Directory, and he retired from the army in disgust.

French Invasion of Italy.

In Italy the French were driven from Piedmont and the territories of Genoa, which they had invaded; but the victory which Scherer won over De Vins at Lovano, November 23, 1795, was a forerunner to greater successes which the French gained the next year.

Pacification of La Vendee and Execution of Vendean Leaders.

The Directory succeeded in ending the civil war in La Vendée—a result attributable to the firmness and moderation of General Hoche. He defeated Charette and took him prisoner, and Stofflet was betrayed into the hands of the republicans. Stofflet was shot at Angers, the old capital of Anjou, February 25, 1796; and Charette suffered the same fate at Nantes, March 29, 1796. The Count d'Autichamp and the other Vendean generals signed a treaty of peace with General Hoche. George Cadoudal, the leader of the Chouans, and other Vendean chiefs renewed the war in Brittany, but were also soon conquered by General Hoche and submitted or fled to England. The Directory announced to the legislative Councils the end of the civil war in La Vendée, July 17, 1796. Thus ended the resistance of the Vendean royalists to the Republic.

Gracchus Babœuf's Plot against the Directory.

As the Directory was detested by the violent republicans as well as by the royalists it had to sustain attacks from both parties. The first effort to overthrow it was made by the republicans under the guidance of Gracchus Babœuf, who, like the Roman Tribune whose name he assumed, desired to establish an equalization of property and a new division of lands. He was joined by some of the old Jacobins, the most prominent of whom was Drouet, May 10, 1796. But the plot was discovered; and, after some legal proceedings, which attracted considerable attention, Babœuf and another conspirator were guillotined, and the others were banished from France. The Conspiracy of the Camp at Grenoble, September 9, 1796, was also suppressed.

Plan of a French Campaign against Austria.

General Moreau was assigned to the command of the French army of the Rhine after the retirement of Pichegru. Jourdan retained the command of that of the Sambre and the Meuse. Carnot, who still directed the military operations of France, formed a plan of campaign by which these two armies were to march upon Vienna, in conjunction with the French army of Italy, the command of which was assigned to General Bonaparte, who, then in his twenty-seventh year, began his wonderful military career.

Bonaparte's Army in Italy.

Young Bonaparte's eagerness to begin operations drew some remonstrances upon him. It was suggested to him that there were many things lacking in his army that were essential to a campaign. He replied: "I have enough if successful, and too many should I be beaten." He lost no time in arriving at Nice; and when he assumed command of his army there, March 27, 1796, he planned one of the most daring invasions. He found his army of thirty-five thousand

men in a wretched state of disorder and inefficiency through the neglect of the government. But he soon infused his own energetic spirit into his troops, firing their imaginations with promises of wealth in Italy and applause in France, and marched on Genoa without delay, entering Italy between the Alps and the Apennines.

Bonaparte's First Victories and Conquests in Italy.

The Austrian army was at Tortona and Alessandria, the Sardinian at Ceva. Bonaparte defeated the Austrians under Beaulieu at Montenotte and Millessimo, in April, 1796, and so completely separated the Austrian and Sardinian armies that they hastened severally to the defense of Milan and Turin. His victory at Mondovi decided the fate of Piedmont; and the terrified Sardinian king, Victor Amadeus III., hastily concluded a humiliating peace with the French Republic, to which he ceded the duchy of Savoy and the county of Nice; while he expelled the French Emigrants from his dominions, including even his own daughters, who were married to the two brothers of Louis XVI.; and six of the strongest fortresses of his kingdom were placed in the hands of the French as security until the conclusion of a general peace between all the belligerents, while the French were given the right to march their armies through the Kingdom of Sardinia at any time. Soon after concluding this humiliating treaty King Victor Amadeus III. of Sardinia died; and his son and successor, Charles Emmanuel IV. (1796–1802), relinquished Piedmont to the French and retired with his family to the island of Sardinia.

Battle of Lodi.

In May, Bonaparte crossed the Po with his army and advanced to attack the Austrians. The bridge of Lodi, across the river Adda, was strongly guarded by an Austrian force, which opened a tremendous discharge of grapeshot upon the French troops when they attempted to cross. The advance was checked for a moment, when the French grenadiers rushed forward with irresistible impetuosity, drove back the Austrians and thus forced a passage over the bridge. This victory, known as the battle of Lodi, occurred on the 10th of May, 1796, and gave the French possession of Milan and the Lombard towns.

Bonaparte's New Conquests in Italy and His Trophies.

The victorious Bonaparte was enthusiastically welcomed by the people of Milan, and he fixed his headquarters at that city, May 15, 1796. He subjected the towns of Lombardy and so terrified the smaller princes of Italy by the success of his arms and by his insolence that they were only too glad to make peace with him at any price. He extorted large sums of money and war materials, as well as valuable pictures, statues and other works of art, and manuscripts, from the Dukes of Parma, Modena, Lucca, Tuscany, etc. He followed the example of the Roman generals, with whose lives he was made familiar from Plutarch's descriptions. He enriched and adorned Paris with these productions of the mind and these works of art in order to

gratify the vain and spectacle-loving Parisians. He supported the weak Directory with the supplies of money which he had exacted from the Italian princes.

The Directory's Jealousy of Bonaparte.

Bonaparte's rapid successes and his boldness in venturing to treat independently with the King of Sardinia so astonished and alarmed the Directory that that body designed to restrain him by dividing the command of the French army in Italy between him and General Kellerman, but Bonaparte declined to accept this divided command and tendered his resignation to the Directory. His brilliant successes in Italy had rendered him so popular in France that the Directory did not dare to accept his resignation and ceased interfering with him.

Siege of Mantua

After giving his troops twelve days of rest at Milan, Bonaparte marched against Mantua, the chief Austrian stronghold in Italy and the key to all further operations against Austria. Bonaparte at once laid siege to that strong fortress, the strongest in all Italy. The strenuous efforts of the Austrian generals to relieve it showed their appreciation of its importance.

Bonaparte's New Victories in Italy

As the Austrian army under Beaulieu had been broken up by its defeats at Montenotte, Millessimo and Lodi, Marshal Wurmser was sent with a new Austrian army, numbering seventy thousand men, to the relief of Mantua. Wurmser twice entered Italy from the Tyrol for that purpose; but he was defeated by the youthful Bonaparte at Brescia, Castiglione, Roveredo and Bassano. Wurmser, being unable to keep the field, retired with the remains of his army within the walls of Mantua, as that fortress was well provisioned and capable of enduring a long siege.

Campaign of 1796 in Germany.

The campaign of 1796 in Germany was conducted by the French armies under Moreau and Jourdan, who were opposed by an Austrian and German imperial army of more than one hundred thousand men under the Archduke Charles, the brother of the Emperor Francis II. and one of the greatest generals of that time.

Moreau's Victories.

Moreau crossed the Rhine into Germany between Strassbourg and Kehl, while Jourdan effected a passage of the same river at Mayence. Moreau entered Ulm and Augsburg, crossed the Lech and pushed his vanguard to the last pass of the Tyrol; but Jourdan was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Wurzburg, September 3, 1796, and was consequently obliged to retreat across the Rhine into France. The inhabitants of Spessart and Odenwald, exasperated at the oppressions and exactions of the French, rose against the retreating foe, destroying the French soldiers wherever they strayed from their ranks.

Jourdan's Defeat and Retreat through Germany.

Moreau's Masterly Retreat through Germany.

Jourdan's defeat left Moreau, who had advanced as far as Munich, in an extremely-perilous situation; as the Archduke Charles made great exertions to cut off his communications with France. Moreau extri-

cated himself from his dangerous situation by a masterly retreat through the valley of the Danube and the Black Forest to the valley of the Rhine; but he was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Emmendingen and driven from Hohenblau, and was compelled to recross the Rhine, September 19, 1796.

Austrian Capture of Fortresses.

The Archduke Charles then besieged the fortresses of Kehl and Huningen; but these fortresses were defended by the French until the close of the campaign, and their garrisons capitulated only when all resistance was hopeless, thus leaving the besiegers masters only of heaps of ruins.

Peace Treaties.

The German princes mostly followed the example of Prussia in making peace with France, October 24, 1796, instead of encouraging the risings of their subjects against the retreating French.

Bonaparte's Critical Position in Italy.

The retreat of Moreau and Jourdan left Bonaparte's army in Italy to bear the full weight of the Austrian power; and a third Austrian army, consisting of sixty thousand Hungarians, under Marshal Alvinzi, was sent into Italy to relieve Wurmser at Mantua and to drive Bonaparte out of Italy. The great numerical superiority of the Austrians threatened to sweep everything before them in the plains of Lombardy. A severe but indecisive engagement occurred at Vicenza, and Bonaparte's position became exceedingly critical. The young general failed in an attack on the heights of Caldiero, but his bold movements soon changed the aspect of affairs.

Three Days' Battle of Arcola.

On the 15th of November, 1796, Bonaparte marched to attack Alvinzi at the village of Arcola. The narrow causeways leading to the village were closely guarded by the Austrians. The French column that attempted to cross the bridge of Arcola was driven back with terriffic slaughter; whereupon Bonaparte, seizing a standard, rushed on the bridge and urged on his grenadiers, but they were repulsed; and Napoleon was in extreme danger of being made a prisoner, when his grenadiers suddenly rushed forward with the cry of "Save the General!" and, with resistless fury, forced a passage over the bridge. Thus began the three days' battle of Arcola, November 15–17, 1796, which ended in the utter defeat of Alvinzi, who was obliged to retreat to Montebello.

British Conquest of Dutch and French Colonies.

The British had already conquered the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch. Early in 1796 they also took Ceylon, Malacca, Cochin, Trincomalee and the Spice Islands, in the East Indies, from them; and Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo, in Dutch Guiana, in South America, in May, 1796. The British successively captured the islands of Martinique, St. Lucia, Guadaloupe and St. Domingo, in the West Indies, from the French.

Franco-Spanish Alliance.

By the Treaty of San Ildefonso, August 19, 1796, an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between Spain and the French Re-

public, based upon the Family Compact of the Bourbons in 1761; and in October of the same year Spain declared war against Great Britain.

Pitt's Efforts for Peace.

Great Britain, with Austria as her only ally and with France, Holland and Spain as her active enemies, now sought peace. Mr. Pitt ordered the British troops to evacuate the island of Corsica, October 21, 1796, whereupon the French took possession of the island. Mr. Pitt also sent Lord Malmesbury to Lille to negotiate a treaty with France; but this effort failed, October 24, 1796, as the conditions were not agreeable to the three Directors who constituted the majority. Edmund Burke, in his *Letters on a Regicide Peace*, denounced Pitt's efforts to negotiate with France, and thus fired the military ardor of the English people.

French Expedition to Ireland.

A powerful French fleet under Admiral Morard de Galles, carrying twenty-five thousand troops under General Hoche, sailed on December 15, 1796, for the invasion of Ireland, where a formidable conspiracy against British power existed; but this powerful French expedition was dispersed by tempests, and was obliged to return to France without even effecting a landing in Ireland.

Great Britain's Troubles and Her Naval Victories.

The British fleet under Sir John Jervis defeated a Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal, February 14, 1797. Great Britain's credit had now sunk to it lowest ebb; and in February, 1797, the Bank of England suspended specie payments. An alarming mutiny of the Channel fleet, lasting three months, was ended only by the most humiliating concessions. In this dark hour of the struggle Burke passed away, protesting against Pitt's fresh efforts to negotiate a peace with France at Lille. Pitt's efforts for peace were again foiled by the undying hatred between the two nations. But the British naval victories at this period restored the confidence of the English people. The Channel fleet under Admiral Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet under Van Winter off Camperdown, on the coast of Holland, October 11, 1797.

Battle of Rivoli and Capture of Mantua.

At the beginning of 1797 the Austrians made a fourth attempt to save Mantua. Alvinzi was then largely reinforced; and early in January, 1797, he appeared on the Adige with an army of sixty thousand men. Bonaparte had received only seven thousand recruits to replace all his losses in his last two campaigns; but he marched against the main body of the Austrian army under Alvinzi, and won a great victory at Rivoli, January 14, 1797. The superior military genius of the French commander triumphed over the superior numbers of the Austrians. Alvinzi retreated into the Tyrol with his shattered army; and Wurmser was obliged to surrender Mantua and his army of twenty thousand men to Bonaparte, February 2, 1797, after a siege of seven months, thus opening the way to an invasion of Austria.

Peace of Tolentino with Pope Pius VI.

But before invading Austria, Bonaparte, by a sudden and quick movement, overran the States of the Church. He had received orders from the Directory to overthrow the papal government; but he disregarded these instructions by concluding the Peace of Tolentino with Pope Pius VI., who thus ceded to France the states of Bologna, Ferrara and the Romagna, in Italy, and the city of Avignon and the Venaissin, in France, and paid a contribution of fifteen million francs and the choicest works of art in Rome, February 19, 1797.

Bonaparte's Brilliant Achievements.

Thus the youthful Napoleon Bonaparte astonished the world by his brilliant military achievements and leaped at a bound to the rank of the greatest general of the world. Within less than a year in Italy he had conquered Piedmont and Lombardy; destroyed or captured four Austrian armies; detached the Kings of Sardinia and Naples and the Dukes of Parma, Modena and Tuscany from the European Coalition; laid Venice and Genoa under heavy contributions; and annexed Avignon and the Venaissin, Savoy, Nice, Bologna, Ferrara and the Romagna to the dominion of France. The spoils of war supported its expense and enriched the French officers and troops, and, in addition, enabled Bonaparte to remit thirty million francs to the Directory.

Bonaparte's Address to His Army.

Early in the spring of 1797 Bonaparte set out for the invasion of Austria, after animating his troops by a spirited address in which he recounted to them the glories of their recent campaigns in Italy. In this address he said to his troops: "You have been victorious in fourteen pitched battles and seventeen combats. You have made one hundred thousand prisoners, taken five hundred pieces of field artillery, two thousand of heavy caliber, and four sets of pontoons. The contributions you have levied on the vanquished countries have clothed, fed and paid the army. You have, besides, added thirty millions of francs to the public treasury; and you have enriched the museum of Paris with three hundred masterpieces of the works of art, the produce of thirty centuries."

His Invasion of Austria.

Bonaparte led an army of sixty thousand men through the narrow defiles of the Tyrolese Alps into the hereditary Austrian territories. He was opposed by a fifth Austrian army under the Archduke Charles, who awaited him in Friuli and whom he defeated in a series of sharp engagements, driving him beyond the Save. The Archduke Charles was pursued by Bonaparte as far as Klagenfurth, within a few days' march of Vienna, when the triumphant French general consented to the proposal of the Emperor Francis II. for an armistice.

Preliminary Peace of Leoben.

Francis II. and his court were anxious for the fate of their capital, and dismay and alarm seized upon all classes in Vienna. The fears of the Austrian court and the cries of the Viennese for peace resulted in sending five Austrians envoys to the triumphant Bonaparte, who first

NAPOLEON CROSSING THE ALPS

From the Painting by H. Bellangé

granted an armistice of five days, which he afterward extended, as the probability of a treaty of peace became evident. The Preliminary Peace of Leoben was signed by Bonaparte and the Austrian envoys, April 18, 1797. One of the Austrian plenipotentiaries stated that the Emperor Francis II. acknowledged the existence of the French Republic. Bonaparte replied sternly: "Strike out that clause. The French Republic is like the sun in heaven. The misfortune lies with those who are so blind as to be ignorant of the existence of either."

Massacre of French Soldiers by Venetians.

About the time of the conclusion of the Preliminary Peace of Leoben, a popular rising against the French had broken out in the territory of the Republic of Venice, in consequence of a false rumor of a defeat of Bonaparte by the Austrians in the Tyrol; and four hundred sick and wounded French soldiers in the hospital at Verona and many other Frenchmen in the vicinity of that city were massacred.

Bonaparte's Occupation of Naples.

Bonaparte instantly declared war against the Venetian Republic and sent a detachment to occupy its arsenal and forts. The cowardice of the Doge and the aristocratic Council of Ten facilitated Bonaparte's enterprise. Instead of offering a brave resistance to the French and falling with honor, the Council of Ten humbly implored the grace of the youthful conqueror. Bonaparte replied: "French blood has been treacherously shed. The Lion of St. Mark must lick the dust." In the midst of the consternation occasioned by his answer, Bonaparte appeared on the opposite side of the Lagoon; and some of his troops were already in the city when the Doge and the Council of Ten submitted unconditionally.

His Subversion of the Aristocratic Government of Venice.

Bonaparte then exacted the severest conditions. He demanded the overthrow of the aristocratic government in Venice, the arrest and trial of the leading magistrates, the release of all political prisoners and the disbandment of the Venetian army and navy. The French party prevailed; and the Council of Ten relinquished its authority and acknowledged the sovereignty of the people, whereupon the government was adminstered by a democratic council.

French Occupation and Pillage of Venice.

A riot which broke out in Venice was made a pretext for the introduction of French troopes, who marched into the city in May, 1797, seized the Venetian fleet and the stores of the arsenal, plundered the churches, galleries and libraries of their richest ornaments and most valued treasures, and, with the aid of the captured Venetian fleet, conquered the Ionian Isles for France. The French kept possession of the city until the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with Austria.

France was at this time distracted by the contests of parties. So great a reaction had taken place among the French people that the advocates of monarchy secured the election of their candidates to the

Royalist Reaction and Victory in the Elections of 1797.

legislative Councils by large majorities, in May, 1797. The Councils immediately denounced the policy of the Directory and manifested a disposition to overthrow the republican constitution and reëstablish monarchy. Emigrants and unsworn priests returned to France in large numbers and made no secret of their design to overthrow the Republic. Two of the Directors—Carnot and Barthelemy—sided with the royalist majority in the Councils. The other three Directors—Barras, Rewbell and Lareveillere-Lepaux—became alarmed for the security of their power and resolved to maintain the Republic. These three Directors proceeded to break up the authority of the Councils and caused several regiments from General Hoche's army to approach Paris. The Councils, with their royalist majorities, broke out into furious menaces; and the three republican Directors replied by threatening addresses from the armies. Carnot and Barthelemy vainly sought to restore harmony.

Rupture between Republican Directors and Royalist Councilors.

Plots and Designs of Both Parties.

A plan was formed by which the Councils might obtain the victory; and Pichegru, as president of the Council of Five Hundred, was to execute it. Promptness and courage were necessary, but Pichegru hesitated. On the other hand, the Directory acted with the boldness which the crisis demanded. The three republican Directors—Barras, Rewbell and Lareveillere-Lepaux—resolved upon a *coup d'état* on the morning of the 18th Fructidor, September 4, 1797. They sought aid from Generals Bonaparte and Hoche, the latter of whom then commanded one of the French armies on the Rhine. Hoche rapidly advanced on Paris with a large military force; while Bonaparte sent General Augereau, one of his most trusted officers, who was selected to command the army of Paris.

Revolution of the Eighteenth Fructidor.

On the evening before the appointed day the troops stationed around Paris entered the city under Augereau's command. The *coup d'état* was finished between four and six o'clock in the morning of the 18th Fructidor. General Augereau surrounded the Tuileries with his troops and ordered the royalists deputies to be arrested. Augereau himself arrested Pichegru, Willot and Ramel in the hall of session; and as the royalist members came hastily to the hall they were either arrested or refused admission. Augereau informed them that the Directory had decided upon the Odeon as the place of meeting for the Council of Ancients, and upon the School of Medicine for the meeting of the Council of Five Hundred.

Royalist Directors and Councilors Imprisoned and Elections Annulled.

The two Directors who sided with the royalists—Carnot and Barthelemy—along with eleven members of the Council of Ancients and forty-two of the Council of Five Hundred, among whom was Pichegru, were arrested and imprisoned. The three republican Directors produced Pichegru's correspondence with the exiled Bourbon princes, and

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Macon
Bourg
Clermont
Montbrison
Lyons
St. Etienne
Vienne
Valence
Grenoble
Rhodez
Nismes
Montpellier
Narbonne
Arles
Aix
Orange
Avignon
Marseilles
Toulon
Cannes
Frejus
Monaco
Perpignan
Gerona
Geneva
Briancon
Turin
Asti
Mondovi
Argentier
Savona
Spezzia
Oneglia
Novara
Vercelli
Milan
Brescia
Lodi
Pavia
Cremona
Parma
Modena
Lucca
Pisa
Leghorn
Sienna
Elba
Bastia
Calvi
Corte
Ajaccio
Porto Vecchio
St. Bonifacio
Sassari
Terranova
Alghero
Oristano
Cagliari
San Pietro
Antioco
Serpentis Islands
Minorca
Port Mahon
Majorca
Cabrera
Alcudia
Bizerta
Ruins of Carthage
Tunis
La Cala
Bona
Hammamet
Majerdah
River
Rhone River
Auvergne Mts.
Cevennes Mts.
Alps
Hieres Isles
Mediterranean Sea
Africa
Algeria
Tunis
Sardinia
Italy
Spain
France
4
6
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10 Longitude East from Greenwich

HISTORICAL MAP
OF
MODERN ITALY
From A.D.1492 To 1797
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
Venice and her Possessions before A.D.1797 Buff
Possessions of the Duke of Savoy before 1713 and the King of Sardinia from 1713 to 1861 Purple
Genoa and her Possessions before 1769 Green
14
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38
36
CARNIOLA
CROATIA
SLAVONIA
ISTRIA
DALMATIAN ISLANDS
ADRIATIC SEA
APENNINES
ALPS
HERZEGOVINA
BOSNA
MONTE NEGRO
PINDUS
ALBANIA
ROMAGNA
CAMPAGNA
ROME
NAPLES
PONZA ISLES
LIPARI ISLES
Stromboli
Mt. Vesuvius
Mt. Ætna
GULF OF TARANTO
STRAIT OF OTRANTO
IONIAN ISLANDS
GREECE
Laybach
Drave
Save
River
Agram
Trieste
Venice
Rovigno
Albona
Pola
Fiume
Novi
Zara
Sebenico
Banjluka
Mostar
Ragusa
Cattaro
Scutari
Antivari
Dulcigno
Priseno
Cettinge
Tirana
Ochrida
Lake Ochrida
Durazzo
Berat
Monastir
Valona
San Marino
Jesi
Ancona
Loreto
Fermo
Pescara
Aquila
Chieti
Orlona
Tivoli
Campo Bazzo
Viesti
Manfredonia
Gaeta
Capua
Benevento
Trani
Brindisi
Taranto
Otranto
Salerno
Nola
Poncastro
Rossano
Paolo
Policastro
Delvino
Rohita
Parga
Arta
Ithaca
Cephalonia
Zante
Cerigo
Malta
Gozzo
Valetta
Cattica
Giola
Messina
Reggio
Scylla
Charybdis
Palermo
Termini
Sciaccu
Gattanissetti
Catania
Girgenti
Alicata
Syracuse
Ragusa
Modica
Casarna

the Councils sustained the action of these three Directors. The prisoners were banished to Cayenne, in French Guiana, in South America. The royalist elections were then annulled, the returned Emigrants were banished and thirty-five newspapers were suppressed.

Results of this Coup d'etat.

Thus the expressed will of the French people was set aside by the military usurpation known as the *Revolution of the Eighteenth Fructidor*. This *coup d'état* ruined the royalist party, revived the republican party, taught the army the secret of its strength and substituted military rule for the supremacy of law. Merlin de Douai and François de Neufchateau were substituted as Directors in the places of Carnot and Barthelemy.

Definite Peace of Campo Formio.

The Directory intrusted the whole conduct of the negotiations with Austria to General Bonaparte; and the Definitive Peace of Campo Formio, near Udine, in Venetian territory, October 17, 1797, left Great Britain as the only power at war with the French Republic. By this famous treaty a great part of Northern Italy—Mantua, Milan, Modena, Ferrara, Bologna and the Romagna, with their dependencies —were erected into the *Cisalpine Republic*, which became a virtual dependency of France. The Austrian Netherlands and the German territory west of the Rhine with Mayence, along with the Ionian Isles, were ceded to France; while Austria received Venice, with her provinces of Istria and Dalmatia. The Emperor Francis II. promised to withdraw the German imperial troops from the Rhine fortresses; and, in case the German Imperial Diet refused to ratify these terms, he agreed to contribute only his contingent as Archduke of Austria. The German princes, prelates and nobles who suffered from this cession of the western Rhineland were to be indemnified on the east side of the river. These and other points were to be settled by a Congress of France and the German powers at Rastadt, in the territory of Baden.

Venetian Republic Ended.

Thus, by the Peace of Campo Formio, the Venetian Republic ceased to exist, after having lasted thirteen hundred and forty-five years, A. D. 452–1797. A great part of Northern Italy, as we have just seen, was erected into the *Cisalpine Republic*, virtually dependent on France. Genoa and some of the adjacent territories were erected into the *Ligurian Republic*, which was also virtually under the control of France. Thus the triumphant French effected a complete change in the political division and condition of Northern Italy.

Cisalpine and Ligurian Republics.

Bonaparte's Popularity.

After opening the Congress of Rastadt, Bonaparte returned to France, December, 1797. He was received in Paris with a most magnificent ovation and was by far the most popular man in France. Efforts were made to induce the government to give him some substantial recognition of his great military services, but the jealous Directory refused to make the well-merited reward.

Conquering March of the French Republic.

Great Britain, the only power now at war with the French Republic, was anxious for peace. The other powers were at that time little disposed to attack Revolutionary France, every administration of which had been victorious, and which, upon every fresh victory, encroached farther on the territories of her neighbors. In 1792 the French Revolution extended only to the Austrian Netherlands. In 1794 it had advanced to Holland and to the Rhine. In 1796 it had overrun Northern Italy and penetrated into part of Germany. It was probable that, if its march were resumed, it would achieve more distant conquests; as it had become more aggressive with each new victory.

French Establishment of a New Roman Republic.

The States of the Church were infested with malcontents who were ready to join in a revolution there, and during the winter of 1797–'98 French influence occasioned republican outbreaks at Rome and at other places in the States of the Church. During the suppression of a republican riot at Rome by the papal troops the French General Duphot, who was present, was killed. The French government, seizing upon this as a pretext, sent a force under General Berthier to Rome, February, 1798. The French were welcomed by the Romans as deliverers. The Pope was deprived of his temporal power; and General Berthier proclaimed the restoration of the *Roman Republic* with Senators, Consuls and Tribunes.

Captivity of Pope Pius VI.

The gray-haired Pope Pius VI. made no resistance, though his personal property was inventoried, even to the rings upon his hands. He would not accept a pension from his captors, and was conveyed like a prisoner to a convent at Siena.

French Pillage of Rome.

The French imposed severe military levies and imposts upon Rome and carried the most valuable works of art to Paris; and Rome was subjected to a pillage unsurpassed by those of the Goths, Vandals or Normans centuries before. Priestly robes were burned for the gold in their embroidery; palaces and churches were ransacked, and their treasuries of art were carried away or destroyed. The Romans, thus disappointed in the friends who had gained their favor by the high-sounding names of "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity," rose against the French, but were reduced to submission with terrible loss of life. General Berthier was so disgusted by the violation of his own engagements to respect private property that he asked the Directory to recall him; and General Massena, who was appointed his successor, was so notorious a freebooter that the army itself refused to receive him and mutinied.

Dissensions in Switzerland.

Switzerland was also revolutionized by the French in 1798. The cantons of Berne and Vaud were governed by an aristocratic council, all the members of which belonged to patrician families. The Vaudois, who spoke the French language and entertained French ideas, were in-

fected with revolutionary doctrines. Excited by the French republicans, the Vaudois took up arms to cast off the assumed authority of the Bernese; but the revolted Vaudois were not a match for their antagonists, and they therefore claimed the assistance of the French.

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Switzerland Converted into the Helvetic Republic.

With the support of the democratic party of Switzerland, headed by Ochs of Basle and Laharpe of Vaud, the French converted Switzerland into the one and indivisible *Helvetic Republic*, which, by a treaty of peace and alliance, was virtually placed under the supremacy of France, which thus secured two military roads, one into Southern Germany and one over the Simplon into Northern Italy. Geneva was annexed to France.

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The invasion of England was not attempted; but an expedition was fitted out for the conquest of Egypt, a province of the Ottoman Empire, notwithstanding that a state of peace existed between France and Turkey. The command of this expedition was given to Bonaparte, who intended to strike at the British possessions in India after effecting the conquest of Egypt. Among the generals who served under Bonaparte in this expedition were many who afterward became famous—Berthier, Kleber, Murat, Junot, Desaix, Davoust, Lannes and others.

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Battle of the Pyramids.

On the 6th of July, Bonaparte left Alexandria, and with thirty thousand of his troops he advanced toward Cairo, greatly annoyed on the way by the Mameluke horsemen. On the 21st (July, 1798) he arrived before the intrenched camp of thirty thousand Mamelukes under Mourad Bey, near the famous Pyramids. Eight thousand Mameluke horsemen advanced to attack the French troops, when Bonaparte exclaimed: "Soldiers, from yonder Pyramids forty centuries look down upon you!" Then the conflict commenced. The French, who were formed into squares, easily repulsed the impetuous assault of the Mamelukes, who rode up to the bayonets of their enemies and threw their pistols at the heads of the French grenadiers. When the Mameluke cavalry were driven back, the French took by storm the camp of their enemy, with all their baggage and cannon; and the battle of the Pyramids ended in a complete victory for Bonaparte, who had lost less than two hundred men in the engagement. Hundreds of the enemy perished in the Nile. Mourad Bey and a small remnant of his Mamelukes fled into Upper Egypt. Cairo surrendered the next day, and the conquest of Lower Egypt was accomplished.

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as against the disordered condition of the finances and the intrigues of the republicans, who were as hostile to the government as the royalists. The extreme republicans would have overthrown the Directory by a counter-revolution had not the Directors by a stretch of power annulled the elections of 1798. But the Directory was fast losing the support of public opinion by its efforts to oppose violence with violence.

Embarrassments of the French Directory.

The French Republic, by her victories over her enemies, had established six sister republics. These were the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, Ligurian, Roman and Parthenopeian Republics—all established with forms of government similar to that of France. The aggressive conduct of the French in Switzerland, Rome and Naples alarmed the other powers of Europe.

The Six Sister Republics.

The relations between France and Austria were strained because the house of Bernadotte, the French ambassador at Vienna, had been broken open and the tricolor torn down and burned during a popular festival, without the Austrian government having rendered satisfaction. The Emperor Paul of Russia, the successor of Catharine the Great, entertained the most intense hatred against the French Republic; and, as Grand Master of the Knights of St. John, which he had caused himself to be appointed, he saw a cause for war in the French occupation of the island of Malta. Sultan Selim III. of Turkey was not deceived by Bonaparte's assurances of friendly intentions, and was naturally incensed at the unprincipled occupation of his tributary province of Egypt by Bonaparte. The Sultan accordingly sent magnificent presents to Admiral Nelson and hastened to make an alliance with Russia, hitherto Turkey's bitterest enemy, against France, hitherto Turkey's best ally.

Strained Relations of the French Republic with Austria, Russia and Turkey.

Mr. Pitt feared danger to Great Britain's foreign possessions from Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt; and the influence of British gold, along with the general alarm created throughout Europe by the recent French aggressions in Italy, Switzerland and Egypt, induced Austria, Russia, Turkey and Naples to unite with Great Britain in a Second Coalition against the French Republic, in the fall of 1798.

Second Coalition against the French Republic.

King Ferdinand IV. of Naples and Sicily did not wait for the signing of the treaties of alliance between the powers forming the Second Coalition before he began hostilities in the fall of 1798. This hard-hearted and cowardly king devoted himself wholly to hunting and fishing, leaving the affairs of state to his impetuous wife Caroline, a daughter of the great Empress Maria Theresa and a sister of Queen Marie Antoinette. Queen Caroline herself was entirely under the influence of the notorious courtesan, Lady Hamilton, the wife of the British ambassador at Naples.

The Royal Family of Naples.

Invasion of the Roman Republic by the Army of Naples.

Animated by the most inveterate hatred toward the French Revolution and the regicide republicans of France, and informed that the Second Coalition of European powers was in the process of formation, Queen Caroline persuaded her husband to send a Neapolitan army of forty thousand men under the Austrian General Mack against the new Roman Republic. The Neapolitan army marched into the Roman territories in three columns, the central one under General Mack marching directly upon Rome, November, 1798.

French Recapture of Rome and Advance on Naples.

The French army in Rome evacuated the city, leaving a garrison in the Castle of St. Angelo; and the King of Naples and Sicily was welcomed with acclamations. But General Mack was defeated with heavy loss in several battles in the course of a few days by the French under General Championnet, who retook Rome and pursued King Ferdinand IV. into his own Kingdom of Naples. The Neapolitan king and his court fled from their capital in dismay, embarking with the British fleet under Admiral Nelson for Palermo, in Sicily, ordering their own fleet to be set on fire, and thus abandoning their continental dominions to the triumphant French, December, 1798.

Popular Resistance to the French at Naples.

The populace of the city of Naples, excited by the monks and the clergy, now arose against the advancing French troops under General Championnet; while troops of *lazzaroni*, or ragamuffins, joined with peasants and galley-slaves, took possession of Naples and spread such alarm that King Ferdinand's viceroy also fled into Sicily, while General Mack sought protection among the French.

Resistance Ended by a Pretended Miracle.

The French won the lazzaroni and peasants over to their side by a miracle. The blood of St. Januarius, which is still preserved in a vial as the most precious possession of the Neapolitans, had failed to liquefy when the king fled from the city; but when a prince who favored the French threatened to kill the archbishop in case of further delay the miracle was duly performed in favor of General Championnet. The Neapolitan people were thus satisfied, and all resistance to the French ceased, January, 1799.

Naples Converted into the Parthenopeian Republic.

General Championnet then marched over blood and corpses into the stubbornly-defended town, abolished the monarchy in Naples and converted that kingdom into the *Parthenopeian Republic*, which was bound by an alliance with the French interest, January, 1799. All the more respectable and educated Neapolitans who were inspired with any feeling of patriotism were delighted to escape from years of kingly and priestly tyranny, and hailed the new republican government with enthusiasm.

French Defeats in Germany.

In March, 1799, France declared war against Austria and Tuscany; and the Coalition commenced hostilities against the French simultaneously in Germany, Italy, Switzerland and the Netherlands. The

French army under Massena was first in the field in Germany and won several successes; but the French army of the Danube under Jourdan was defeated by the Austrians under the Archduke Charles at Ostrach and Stockach, in March, 1799, and driven across the Rhine into France. The French armies in Italy had been ordered to coöperate with those in Germany by advancing through the Engadine, but their dearly-bought captures of Martinsbrück and Münsterthal were rendered useless by Jourdan's retreat.

Murder of French Envoys at the Congress of Rastadt.

The Congress of Rastadt was abruptly terminated by the recall of the German imperial envoy and by the announcement that the Emperor Francis II. had annulled all previous proceedings. The French plenipotentiaries at the Congress of Rastadt—Roberjot, Bonnier and Jean Debry—who had rendered themselves universally odious by their pride and insolence, started to return to France; but as soon as they had left Rastadt, on the evening of April 28, 1799, they were attacked by Szekler hussars, in defiance of all the rights of nations, robbed of their papers and handled so roughly that Roberjot and Bonnier died immediately, and Jean Debry, who was severely wounded, only saved his life by crawling into a ditch. This barbarous deed and outrage upon the laws of civilized nations, for which the German imperial court was only too clearly responsible, excited universal disgust; and the Directory took advantage of it to excite the French people to vengeance, and thus raised a new army of two hundred thousand men.

French Defeats in Italy.

In the meantime the French army in Italy under General Gauthier had overrun Tuscany, the Grand Duke of which had retired to Venice. The main French army in Italy under Scherer was repulsed after several days' obstinate and constant conflicts at Verona, and was still more severely defeated at Magnano. In less than two weeks Scherer lost half his army, and he was succeeded in his command by Moreau.

Suwarrow's Austro-Russian Army in Italy.

Field-Marshal Suwarrow, the renowned Russian commander, now assumed the command of the allied Austrian and Russian forces in Italy. Suwarrow defeated Moreau at Cassano and entered Milan. Moreau's army was only saved from being overwhelmed by superior numbers by the interference of the Aulic Council of the German Empire at Vienna, with its usual dignified dullness. Suwarrow was ordered to besiege Mantua, Peschiera and other towns which were considered essential to the preservation of what he had already won; and Moreau skillfully effected his retreat to Coni, where he strongly posted himself in communication with Genoa and with France.

Macdonald's French Army.

Macdonald with another French army now marched from Naples, and was joined by Gauthier's army at Florence; and had these united forces at once joined with Moreau's army the French might have been as strong in Northern Italy as the allies. But as Macdonald wished to

Three Days' Battle of the Trebia.

make an independent display of his military ability he marched against Suwarrow, by whom he was most disastrously defeated in a three days' battle near the Trebia, the stream which was so famous for one of Hannibal's great victories (June 17–19, 1799).

Austrian and Russian Conquest of the Cisalpine Republic.

The result of Macdonald's crushing defeat was the loss of all of Bonaparte's conquests in Northern Italy. The victorious Austrians and Russians occupied Turin, Pignerol, Susa and other strong posts in Piedmont; and Suwarrow's Cossacks even crossed the Alps and invaded France by marching into Dauphiny. The young General Joubert, who had been appointed to supersede Moreau, was defeated and killed in the three days' bloody battle of Novi with the allied army under Suwarrow, August 15–17, 1799. The loss of Tortona to the French by another disaster completed the conquest of the Cisalpine Republic.

Three Days' Battle of Novi.

Conquest of the Parthenopeian Republic.

The French disasters in Northern Italy were followed by the overthrow of the Roman and Parthenopeian Republics. No sooner had the French evacuated Naples than Cardinal Ruffo, at the head of the enraged lazzaroni and bands of Calabrian peasants, took the city by storm, June 13, 1799; whereupon King Ferdinand IV. and his court returned from Sicily and resumed their authority in Naples.

Bloody Punishment of the Republicans of Naples.

The republicans of Naples now suffered a frightful punishment. With the support of the British fleet under Admiral Nelson, who, seduced by the charms of Lady Hamilton, suffered himself to be made the instrument of an ignominious vengeance, a mob, with the sanction of the restored monarchical government, perpetrated atrocities which eclipsed the horrors of the French Reign of Terror. The assassinations and pillaging by the lazzaroni were followed by the work of the judge, the executioner and the jailor. Every partisan, adherent or supporter of republican institutions suffered persecution. More than four thousand of the most respectable and refined men and women perished on the scaffold or in frightful dungeons. The gray-haired prince, Caraccioli, the former confidant of King Ferdinand IV. and the friend of Admiral Nelson, was hanged at the yard-arm; and his body was loaded with weights and cast into the sea.

Death of Pope Pius VI.

In the meantime the French had conveyed the venerable captive Pope Pius VI. from the convent of Siena to the fortress of Briançon, in the high region of the Alps, a region of perpetual frost, to which French soldiers were sent for punishment. But this unwarranted severity was soon discontinued, and the captive Pope died in the milder climate of Valence, August, 1799. A combined force of Russians, Turks and Neapolitans then advanced on Rome, which the French surrendered September 27, 1799; and the new Pope, Pius VII., recovered possession of the Vatican and resumed the temporal power of the Papacy.

Recapture of Rome by the Allies.

In June, 1799, a Russian army under General Korsakoff arrived in Switzerland, and Suwarrow crossed the Alps from Italy to his assistance. Before Suwarrow's arrival the French under Massena had attacked and routed Korsakoff, while another French army under Soult defeated the Austrians under Hotze. The vanquished Russians fled for refuge to Zurich, where the French under Massena perpetrated a terrible massacre, September 25 and 26, 1799. Among the victims was the Swiss philosopher Lavater, who was shot and mortally wounded by a French officer who had been his guest a short time before.

Defeat of the Russians in Switzerland.

Massacre of Zurich.

In the meantime Field-Marshal Suwarrow was advancing into Switzerland from Italy by way of the St. Gotthard, amid incredible dangers and difficulties, when he found himself surrounded by the French and for the first time heard of Korsakoff's disastrous defeat. After severe conflicts on the St. Gotthard and at the Devil's Bridge against the French and the natural difficulties, Suwarrow was defeated in his efforts to cut through Massena's lines, and was compelled to retreat with the remains of his shattered army across the frozen heights of the Grisons, whence he returned with the remnants of the two Russian armies to his own country, where he died soon afterward, May, 1800.

Expulsion of the Russians from Switzerland.

The attempt of the British to drive the French from Holland and to restore to the Stadtholder his authority resulted in a disastrous failure. The incompetent British general, the Duke of York, having been defeated by the French under General Brune at Berghen, concluded with the French a disgraceful convention at Alkmaar, October 18, 1799, by which he was allowed to retire to England with his army, leaving the Russians alone to oppose the French. The selfish conduct of the British and the Austrians so exasperated the Emperor Paul of Russia that he withdrew from the Coalition, made peace with France and became the bitter enemy of Great Britain.

Expulsion of the British from Holland.

Although cut off from his resources by the loss of his fleet, Bonaparte still resolved to pursue his conquests in the East. Upper Egypt was conquered by a French division under General Desaix, who marched beyond the ruins of Thebes. Leaving sixteen thousand men to hold that country in subjugation, Bonaparte, with fourteen thousand men, in February, 1799, proceeded to Syria, where the Turks were assembling a large army to oppose him. On the 6th of March, Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, was taken by Napoleon, after a furious assault; and four thousand of its defenders were put to death after they had surrendered. This cruel act is an inerasable stain upon the character of the youthful conqueror of Italy and Egypt.

Bonaparte's Expedition to Syria.

Capture of Jaffa.

On the 16th of March (1799) Bonaparte appeared before Acre, which was garrisoned by a small Turkish force under the Pasha of

Siege of Acre.

Syria, who was aided in the defense of the city by a British squadron under Sir Sidney Smith. After a siege of two months, during which seventeen desperate attempts to take the town by storm were defeated, Bonaparte abandoned the siege and left the town in the possession of its defenders.

Battles of Mount Tabor and Nazareth.

In the meantime, while the siege of Acre was in progress, the Turks were assembling immense hosts for the purpose of overwhelming the French. While General Kleber, with a small French force, was on his march to attack the enemy's camp on the Jordan he was met by thirty thousand Turks at Mount Tabor. Kleber, who had formed his little band into squares, successfully held out against the overwhelming numbers of the enemy for six hours; and when Bonaparte appeared with his troops for the relief of his subordinate the Turks fled in dismay and dispersed, leaving their camp and all their baggage and stores in the hands of the victorious French. Another Turkish force was defeated and dispersed at Nazareth by a French force under Junot.

British Conquest of Mysore.

In the meantime the French had induced Tippoo Saib, Sultan of Mysore, to make his last attempt to expel the British from India; but the warlike Sultan's defeat and death in defense of his capital, Seringapatam, which was then carried by storm by the British, May 4, 1799, only resulted in the annexation of Mysore to British India, thus destroying the hopes of the French for a blow against British power in the Far East.

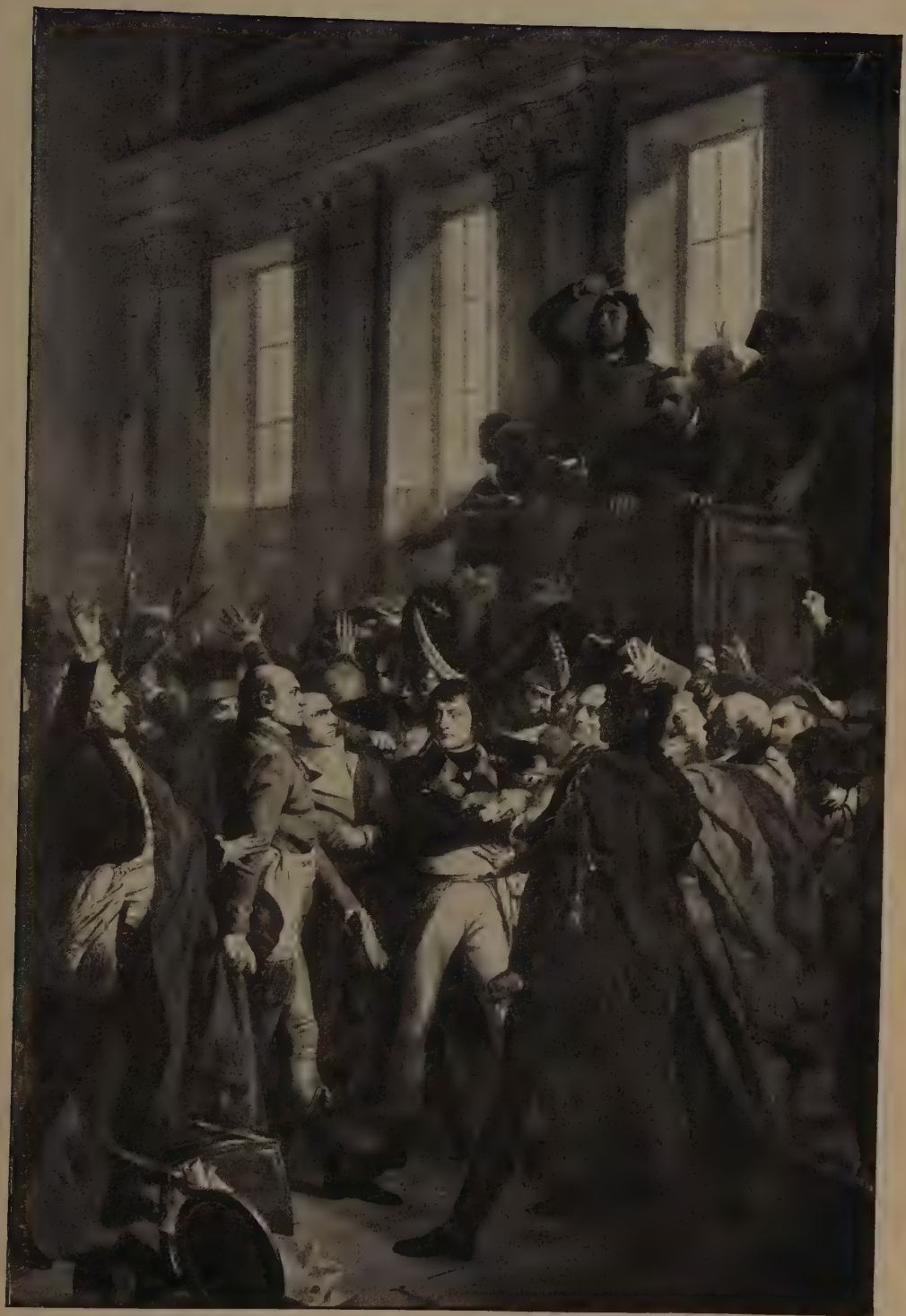
Battle of Aboukir.

Bonaparte reached Egypt, on his return from Syria, on the 1st of June, 1799. On the 11th of July a Turkish army of eighteen thousand men landed at Aboukir bay, whither it had been conveyed by the British squadron commanded by Sir Sidney Smith. Bonaparte, on hearing of this, left Cairo; and on the 25th of July he attacked and completely destroyed the Turkish army, which had already established a strongly-fortified camp at Aboukir. The greater portion of the Turkish troops were killed, wounded, drowned in the bay of Aboukir or made prisoners.

Bonaparte's Return to France.

Shortly after his brilliant victory at Aboukir, Bonaparte received intelligence, through some newspapers, of the disasters to the French arms in Italy; and he resolved upon immediately setting out on his return to France. Leaving his army in Egypt under the command of Kleber, he secretly embarked for France. After a long voyage, in which he was in constant danger of being captured by British cruisers, Bonaparte arrived at Frejus, on the southern coast of France, on the 9th of October; and on the 18th he reached Paris, where he met with a most enthusiastic reception.

No sooner had Bonaparte arrived in Paris than he received proposals from the moderate party, headed by the Director Sieyès, and from the



BONAPARTE DISSOLVING THE COUNCIL OF FIVE HUNDRED

(Le 18ème Brumaire)

From the Painting by F. Bouchot

His Designs against the Directory.

extreme republicans, led by the Director Barras, for the overthrow of the Directory and the legislative Councils, which had fallen into contempt on account of the French disasters in Germany and Italy and because of their weakness at home. Bonaparte decided on entering into a scheme with Sieyès and the moderate party, as they would be less likely to interfere with his measures when his personal government should be established. With this design he won all the French generals except Bernadotte to his plans, and he also gained the support of the garrison of Paris.

Revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire.

On the 18th Brumaire, November 9, 1799, Regnier, one of the conspirators, induced the Council of Ancients to assign the command of the National Guard and of all the troops in Paris to Bonaparte, and to pass a decree for the transfer of the sittings of the two legislative Councils to St. Cloud, where their deliberations might be more free than in Paris. Bonaparte, as commander of the division of Paris and head of the military power, was charged with the execution of this decree. The Directors Sieyès and Roger-Ducos proceeded from the Luxembourg Palace to the legislative Councils and the military camp at the Tuileries and tendered their resignations. The other three Directors endeavored to use their authority and to secure the protection of their guard, but the guard refused to obey them. Barras then sent in his resignation as Director and started for his estate of Grosbosis. Thus the Directory was dissolved on the 18th Brumaire, and only the legislative Councils remained.

Dissolution of the Directory.

The Nineteenth Brumaire.

On the 19th Brumaire, November 10, 1799, the legislative Councils proceeded to St. Cloud, accompanied by a military force. As soon as the Council of Five Hundred had assembled in session one of the conspirators offered a motion which gave rise to a violent tumult, which ended in every member taking the oath of allegiance to the republican constitution. Should the Council of Ancients do the same Bonaparte would be deserted and defeated. The crisis had therefore arrived. He accordingly hastened to the Council of Ancients; and when he was summoned to take the oath to the constitution he declared that it no longer existed, that it was the watchword of all factions and had been violated by all, and that, as it was no longer respected, it must be replaced by another compact and other guarantees. The Council of Ancients approved his address.

Dissolution of the Council of Ancients.

Uproar in the Council of Five Hundred.

Bonaparte next proceeded to the Council of Five Hundred to appease that stormy assembly and to obtain its consent to his plans. But his presence and the sight of the grenadiers whom he left at the door with fixed bayonets impressed the members with the fear of military violence; and they reproached and threatened him, and all cried: "Outlaw him! Down with the Dictator!" The great military leader

who had stood fearless before the fire of foreign foes was disconcerted for the moment by the menaces of a deliberate assembly. He turned pale and became embarrassed, and at once withdrew from the hall and was led away by the grenadiers who had acted as his escort. The tumult continued to rage in the Council of Five Hundred, of which Lucien Bonaparte, Napoleon's brother, was president. He attempted to defend Napoleon; but the other members loudly demanded the outlawry of the military leader; and Lucien Bonaparte retired from the chair and cast off the insignia of his office, and was at once escorted from the chamber by a guard sent for that purpose by Napoleon.

Its Forced Dissolution by Bonaparte.

Sieyès, who was better able to conduct a revolution than Napoleon, advised a resort to military force. Napoleon and his brother, Lucien Bonaparte, harangued the troops, the one as the conqueror of Italy and Egypt, and the other as president of the Council of Five Hundred. Napoleon asked: "Soldiers, can I depend on you?" The soldiers all responded: "Yes, yes." Napoleon instantly ordered General Joachim Murat to expel the Council of Five Hundred from the chamber. Murat accordingly led a troop of grenadiers into the hall, and exclaimed: "In the name of General Bonaparte, the legislative body is dissolved. Let all good citizens retire. Grenadiers, advance!" The shouts of indignation which arose in reply to Murat's pithy proclamation were drowned in the rolling of drums. The grenadiers advanced with fixed bayonets along the whole length of the hall, and the members fled out of the doors and windows with shouts of "Vive la Republique!" That Republic thereafter existed only in name a few years longer. Thus the Constitution of the Year III. was overthrown by the military usurpation known as the *Revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire*. Napoleon Bonaparte now took the government of France into his own strong hands; and France, under the name of a Republic, again became an autocracy, under the *Constitution of the Year VIII.* Thus the liberty which the French Revolution sought to establish was immolated on the altar of personal ambition.

SECTION VI.—NAPOLEON'S CONSULATE AND ACCESSION AS EMPEROR (A. D. 1799–1804).

Constitution of the Year VIII.

We have seen that, by the overthrow of the Directory, on the 18th Brumaire, Napoleon Bonaparte took the government of France into his own hands. On the 22d Frimaire, December 13, 1799, the *Constitution of the Year VIII.* was proclaimed for France, by which the executive power was vested in three Consuls, who were to be elected for

ten years. The *First Consul*, as Napoleon was called, possessed all the powers of a monarch. The other two Consuls—at first Sieyès and Roger-Ducos, who were soon succeeded by Lebrun and Cambacéres—were the advisers of the First Consul. Talleyrand was appointed Minister of the Interior, and Fouché became Minister of Police. There was a *Senate* of eighty members, whose duty was to select persons for the legislature and the chief judges and officials. The legislative power was entrusted to a *Tribunate* of one hundred members, who were to discuss the proposals of the government, and the *Corps Legislatif*, which had the right only of approving or rejecting these proposals.

Napoleon Bonaparte, First Consul.

Senate, Tribunate and Corps Legislatif.

Bonaparte, after securing the chief authority in France, proposed peace to Great Britain and Austria, the only nations then at war with France; writing letters with his own hand to King George III. and the Emperor Francis II. Both powers refused to treat until the Bourbons should be restored to the throne of France, and the most energetic preparations were made on both sides for a vigorous prosecution of the war.

Bonaparte's Peace Offers.

A French army of one hundred and thirty thousand men under Moreau advanced into Germany, gained several victories at Engen and Moeskirch, in Baden, compelled the Austrians to a hasty retreat, advanced to Munich and laid Bavaria under contribution. Another French army of thirty-six thousand men in Italy, under Massena, was compelled to surrender to the Austrians at Genoa.

Moreau in Germany.

Massena's Surrender at Genoa.

On hearing of the surrender of Massena, Bonaparte started for Italy, at the head of fifty thousand troops. He crossed the Alps at the difficult pass of Great St. Bernard. Difficulties almost insurmountable presented themselves. Precipices, ravines and eternal snows seemed to forbid a passage; but the army followed a narrow path, known to no living creature but the chamois and the hunter. The artillery was taken apart, and the pieces were placed in the hollow trunks of trees, which were drawn across the mountains by the soldiers. The troops were encouraged by the music of the bands, and where the ascent was most difficult the drums beat a charge. The Austrians were completely surprised when Bonaparte's army suddenly appeared on the Italian plains. The advance guard under General Lannes entered Piedmont, May 16, 1800. Another French division under General Moncey crossed Mont St. Gotthard, and another under General Thuneau passed over Mont Cenis. All were reunited in Lombardy, and Bonaparte occupied Milan, June 2, 1800.

Bonaparte's Passage of the Alps and Invasion of Italy.

On the 9th of June, 1800, a part of the French army, under General Lannes, defeated the Austrians at Montebello; and on the 14th (June, 1800) Bonaparte at the head of twenty thousand men encountered thirty thousand Austrians under General Melas at the village

Battles of Montebello and Marengo.

of Marengo. The French were at first driven back; but the obstinate resistance of Desaix, who had just arrived from Egypt, and the charge of the brave Kellerman changed the result; and the battle ended in the complete overthrow of the Austrian army. Among the killed on the side of the French was the heroic General Desaix. The result of the French victory was an armistice.

Passage of the Splugen.

In November, 1800, Marshal Macdonald, with fifteen thousand French troops, crossed the Alps into Italy at the difficult pass of the Splugen, thus increasing the French forces in Italy to one hundred thousand men.

Battle of Hohenlinden.

When the negotiations for peace between France and Great Britain failed, the armistice between France and Austria terminated; and an Austrian army of eighty thousand men, under the Archduke John, which had advanced into Bavaria, was defeated with heavy loss by the French army under Moreau in the celebrated battle of Hohenlinden, on the 3d of December, 1800, and compelled to retreat toward Vienna. On the 25th an armistice was concluded.

Campbell's Poem.

The following is the well-known poem of the celebrated Scotch poet Thomas Campbell on the battle of Hohenlinden:

"On Linden, when the sun was low,
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Of Iser rolling rapidly.

"But Linden saw another sight
When the drum beat at dead of night,
Commanding fires of death to light
The darkness of her scenery.

"By torch and trumpet fast arrayed,
Each horseman drew his battle-blade,
And furious every charge neighed
To join the dreadful revelry.

"Then shook the hills with thunder riven;
Then rushed the steeds to battle driven;
And louder than the bolts of Heaven
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Plot to Kill Bonaparte.

Plots for the assassination of Bonaparte were undertaken both by the republicans and by the royalists. On the 24th of December, 1800, while he was crossing a narrow street in Paris, a cask filled with powder, called "The Infernal Machine," exploded, and killed several persons; but the First Consul escaped unhurt. In consequence of this plot many Jacobins were exiled from France, though it was afterward discovered that the plot was the work of the royalists.

Peace of Luneville.

The battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden completely broke the power of Austria, so that nothing remained for the Emperor but to accept such terms as France chose to dictate; and on the 9th of February, 1801, a treaty of peace, signed at Lunéville, put an end to the war between France and Austria; and Great Britain was the only nation that remained at war with France. By the Peace of Lunéville, Austria recognized the Batavian, Helvetic, Ligurian and Cisalpine Republics, and ceded the Duchy of Modena to the last-named, and an *Italian Republic* was formed with Bonaparte as President; and the German princes and the imperial estates were indemnified for their losses by the secularized Church property and the abolished imperial cities on the east side of the Rhine. By a subsequent treaty between France and Spain, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany was erected into the *Kingdom of Etruria* and assigned to a son-in-law of Charles IV., while Spain retroceded the vast territory of Louisiana in North America to France.

Kingdom of Etruria.

Northern League against Great Britain.

Through the influence of Bonaparte, Denmark, Sweden, Russia and Prussia had been induced, late in the year 1800, to enter into a league against the maritime power of Great Britain. The Emperor Paul of Russia, the bitter enemy of Great Britain, was the head and soul of this league. Paul had already laid an embargo on British vessels in Russian ports, while the Danish government had ordered its vessels to resist "the right of search" claimed by the British.

Naval Battle of Copenhagen.

After unsuccessful attempts at negotiation with the hostile powers which formed the league, the British government sent a powerful naval expedition under Lord Nelson and Sir Hyde Parker to the Baltic. On the 2d of April, 1801, the British fleet appeared before Copenhagen, when it was furiously attacked by the Danish fleet. A bloody naval battle of four hours ensued, resulting in the defeat of the Danes,

with the loss of six thousand men, while the British lost only twelve hundred. In speaking of this battle, Nelson said: "I have been in one hundred and one engagements, but the battle of Copenhagen was the most terrible of them all."

Assassination of Czar Paul.

Nelson was preparing to attack the Russian fleet, when he received intelligence that the Emperor Paul had been assassinated at St. Petersburg, on the night of the 24th of March, 1801, by a band of Russian nobles, who had entered into a conspiracy for the purpose under the leadership of Count Pahlen. The cruelty, the arbitrary measures and the gloomy suspicions of the Czar Paul had increased to such an extent as to furnish conclusive evidence that his mind was unbalanced; and he was visited in his bed-chamber by Suboff, Benningsen and others, who demanded his abdication of the Russian throne, which he refused, whereupon he was at once strangled to death by the conspirators.

Alexander I., A. D. 1801–1825.

Paul's son, ALEXANDER I., who was immediately proclaimed Emperor, declared himself the friend of Great Britain and abandoned the hostile league. Prussia, Denmark and Sweden followed the example of Russia, and thus the league fell to pieces, freeing Great Britain from a dangerous menace.

Bonaparte's Threatened Invasion of England.

Bonaparte now threatened an invasion of England from Boulogne. Large bodies of troops were moved to this point, with the ostensible object of being transported to the English coast. The British government made energetic preparations to resist the threatened invasion. Lord Nelson was sent with a powerful fleet against Boulogne. Bonaparte, convinced of the hopelessness of success, abandoned the enterprise.

Expulsion of the French from Egypt.

General Kleber, whom Bonaparte had left in command of the French army in Egypt, and who had maintained himself against the British and the Turks and defended himself against an army six times as large near Heliopolis, March 20, 1800, was assassinated by a fanatical Mohammedan on the very day that his comrade, General Desaix, was killed in the battle of Marengo, June 14, 1800. His army, under his successor, Menou, who embraced Islam, was defeated in the battle of Canopus, near Alexandria by the British under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who lost his life in the moment of victory, March 21, 1801. The French army, consisting of twenty-four thousand men, then surrendered on condition of being allowed to return home; and the whole French force, with arms and ammunition and all the treasures of art and science, was conveyed to France in English vessels.

Pitt's Resignation.

Early in 1801 Mr. Pitt, who had secured the Parliamentary Union of Great Britain and Ireland in 1800, resigned; whereupon Mr. Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons, became Prime Minister of Great Britain.

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Plots for the assassination of Bonaparte were undertaken both by the republicans and by the royalists. On the 24th of December, 1800, while he was crossing a narrow street in Paris, a cask filled with powder, called "The Infernal Machine," exploded, and killed several persons; but the First Consul escaped unhurt. In consequence of this plot many Jacobins were exiled from France, though it was afterward discovered that the plot was the work of the royalists.

Plot to Kill Bonaparte.

The battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden completely broke the power of Austria, so that nothing remained for the Emperor but to accept such terms as France chose to dictate; and on the 9th of February, 1801, a treaty of peace, signed at Lunéville, put an end to the war between France and Austria; and Great Britain was the only nation that remained at war with France. By the Peace of Lunéville, Austria recognized the Batavian, Helvetic, Ligurian and Cisalpine Republics, and ceded the Duchy of Modena to the last-named, and an *Italian Republic* was formed with Bonaparte as President; and the German princes and the imperial estates were indemnified for their losses by the secularized Church property and the abolished imperial cities on the east side of the Rhine. By a subsequent treaty between France and Spain, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany was erected into the *Kingdom of Etruria* and assigned to a son-in-law of Charles IV., while Spain retroceded the vast territory of Louisiana in North America to France.

Peace of Luneville.

Kingdom of Etruria.

Through the influence of Bonaparte, Denmark, Sweden, Russia and Prussia had been induced, late in the year 1800, to enter into a league against the maritime power of Great Britain. The Emperor Paul of Russia, the bitter enemy of Great Britain, was the head and soul of this league. Paul had already laid an embargo on British vessels in Russian ports, while the Danish government had ordered its vessels to resist "the right of search" claimed by the British.

Northern League against Great Britain.

After unsuccessful attempts at negotiation with the hostile powers which formed the league, the British government sent a powerful naval expedition under Lord Nelson and Sir Hyde Parker to the Baltic. On the 2d of April, 1801, the British fleet appeared before Copenhagen, when it was furiously attacked by the Danish fleet. A bloody naval battle of four hours ensued, resulting in the defeat of the Danes,

Naval Battle of Copenhagen.

with the loss of six thousand men, while the British lost only twelve hundred. In speaking of this battle, Nelson said: "I have been in one hundred and one engagements, but the battle of Copenhagen was the most terrible of them all."

Assassination of Czar Paul.

Nelson was preparing to attack the Russian fleet, when he received intelligence that the Emperor Paul had been assassinated at St. Petersburg, on the night of the 24th of March, 1801, by a band of Russian nobles, who had entered into a conspiracy for the purpose under the leadership of Count Pahlen. The cruelty, the arbitrary measures and the gloomy suspicions of the Czar Paul had increased to such an extent as to furnish conclusive evidence that his mind was unbalanced; and he was visited in his bed-chamber by Suboff, Benningsen and others, who demanded his abdication of the Russian throne, which he refused, whereupon he was at once strangled to death by the conspirators.

Alexander I., A. D. 1801–1825.

Paul's son, ALEXANDER I., who was immediately proclaimed Emperor, declared himself the friend of Great Britain and abandoned the hostile league. Prussia, Denmark and Sweden followed the example of Russia, and thus the league fell to pieces, freeing Great Britain from a dangerous menace.

Bonaparte's Threatened Invasion of England.

Bonaparte now threatened an invasion of England from Boulogne. Large bodies of troops were moved to this point, with the ostensible object of being transported to the English coast. The British government made energetic preparations to resist the threatened invasion. Lord Nelson was sent with a powerful fleet against Boulogne. Bonaparte, convinced of the hopelessness of success, abandoned the enterprise.

Expulsion of the French from Egypt.

General Kleber, whom Bonaparte had left in command of the French army in Egypt, and who had maintained himself against the British and the Turks and defended himself against an army six times as large near Heliopolis, March 20, 1800, was assassinated by a fanatical Mohammedan on the very day that his comrade, General Desaix, was killed in the battle of Marengo, June 14, 1800. His army, under his successor, Menou, who embraced Islam, was defeated in the battle of Canopus, near Alexandria by the British under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who lost his life in the moment of victory, March 21, 1801. The French army, consisting of twenty-four thousand men, then surrendered on condition of being allowed to return home; and the whole French force, with arms and ammunition and all the treasures of art and science, was conveyed to France in English vessels.

Pitt's Resignation.

Early in 1801 Mr. Pitt, who had secured the Parliamentary Union of Great Britain and Ireland in 1800, resigned; whereupon Mr. Addington, Speaker of the House of Commons, became Prime Minister of Great Britain.

Peace of Amiens.

As the French were now driven out of Egypt and the island of Malta had been recaptured by a British squadron, nothing remained to contend for between Great Britain and France; and, to the great joy of both nations, a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens, on the 27th of March, 1802. By the terms of this treaty Great Britain was required to evacuate Egypt and to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John and the Cape of Good Hope to the Dutch. Of all her conquests during the war Great Britain retained only Ceylon and Trinidad. The Ionian Isles were recognized as an independent republic under the joint protection of Turkey and Russia. Said a witty English critic concerning the Peace of Amiens: "It is a peace which everybody is glad of and nobody proud of." But there was a general feeling of relief in England at the end of the long struggle, and the new French ambassador to Great Britain was drawn in triumph through the streets of London upon his arrival.

Concordat.

All Europe now enjoyed a short interval of peace, and Bonaparte directed his attention to the establishment of order and the security of his authority in France. On the 18th of September, 1801, he had made a treaty, called the *Concordat*, with Pope Pius VII. for the re-establishment of religion in France. He established a Polytechnic School for the education of young men in the sciences. He summoned the most eminent lawyers in France to arrange the *Code Napoleon*. The construction of roads, bridges and canals was commenced; and the Emigrants were invited to return to their native land. In 1802 Bonaparte was elected First Consul of the French Republic for life, with the privilege of naming his successor. A new order of nobility, founded on individual merit, and known as the *Legion of Honor*, was instituted. As Bonaparte's life tenure and right of transmission of the Consulate cut off the last hope of the restoration of the Bourbons to the French throne, the conspiracies against the First Consul became more extensive and dangerous, and the royalists and the Emigrants tried every means of destroying him, so that his situation was extremely perilous.

Code Napoleon.

Legion of Honor.

Bonaparte's Works, Reforms and Innovations.

Among Bonaparte's great works was a military road across the Simplon from France to Italy. Every department of public and private industry received an impulse from Bonaparte's energetic genius, while instruction and learning were special objects of munificence. By his Concordat with Pope Pius VII., the rites of the Roman Catholic Church were restored as the state-religion of France, though Protestant worship was tolerated. All former bishoprics were suppressed. Ten new archbishoprics and fifty bishoprics were created, the incumbents to be appointed by the First Consul. The *Act of Amnesty* allowed one hundred and fifty thousand Emigrants to return to France,

and such of their confiscated estates as still remained in the possession of the government were restored to them.

Revolt of San Domingo.

The island of San Domingo, or Hayti, the largest and most important of the French possessions in the West Indies, was in a state of rebellion. The negroes, headed by Toussaint L'Ouverture, had taken up arms against their white masters, massacring many of them, and established the independence of the island. Bonaparte sent his brother-in-law Leclerc with an army of thirty-five thousand men to restore the French authority in the island. Toussaint L'Ouverture was treacherously siezed and carried a prisoner to France, where he died. The insurrection was then quelled; but when the French attempted to re-establish slavery the negroes again rebelled, killing nearly all the French troops, and established themselves as an independent nation, adopting a republican form of government. France acknowledged the independence of San Domingo in 1825.

Toussaint L'Ouverture.

San Domingo's Independence.

Renewal of War between Great Britain and France.

The Peace of Amiens proved to be nothing more than a mere suspension of arms. The arbitrary conduct of Bonaparte toward Holland, Switzerland and Italy aroused the jealousy of the British, who accordingly refused to give up Malta, Egypt and the Cape of Good Hope, as stipulated by the Treaty of Amiens. The violent denunciations of Bonaparte by the English press, the equally-violent tirades against Great Britain by Bonaparte's newspaper organ, the Paris *Moniteur*, and the insulting treatment of Lord Whitworth, the British ambassador at Paris, widened the breach between Great Britain and France. In May, 1803, the British Cabinet issued letters of marque and declared an embargo on all French vessels in British ports. Bonaparte retaliated by ordering all British subjects then in France, between the ages of sixteen and sixty years, to be seized and imprisoned. Bonaparte sold Louisiana to the United States in 1803, to prevent that remote territory from falling into Great Britain's possession.

French Conquest and Occupation of Hanover.

A French force under Mortier soon overran and conquered Hanover, the hereditary possession of the King of Great Britain; and, in utter disregard of neutral rights, all Northern Germany was occupied by French troops. Hanover was exhausted by military levies and exactions; and the French obtained arms, munitions of war and splendid horses by the capitulation and disbandment of the Hanoverian army. A French army was also sent against the Kingdom of Naples.

Changes in Germany.

The execution of the Treaty of Lunéville laid the Germano-Roman Empire at Bonaparte's feet. Only six of the free imperial cities remained. In the process of indemnifying temporal princes out of the territories of the Roman Catholic Church, two of the ecclesiastical Electorates disappeared, and the third was transferred with the Primacy to Ratisbon; but the number of Electors was increased by the

elevation of one Catholic and three Protestant German princes to that dignity. The Archbishopric of Salzburg was created an Electorate and conferred on the Grand Duke Ferdinand of Tuscany, the brother of the Emperor Francis II. of Germany, in exchange for his grand-duchy. The arrangement thus made in the territories of the German States by the so-called decree of the German Imperial Diet was the first step toward the dissolution of the old Germano-Roman Empire and the formation of sovereign German kingdoms and principalities, February 25, 1803.

Bonaparte's Annexations.

In violation of all his promises, Bonaparte annexed to France all that portion of Piedmont which had not been incorporated with the Cisalpine Republic, and also the Duchies of Parma, Piacenza and Guastala, the Swiss canton of Valais and the cities of Geneva and Basle.

His Changes in the Helvetic and Cisalpine Republics.

By the so-called *Act of Mediation*, Bonaparte effected such a change in the constitution of the Helvetic Republic that the Swiss cantons had again become independent, but the Swiss confederation was represented as a collective state by a Landamman and a Diet. Bonaparte also effected a change in the Batavian Republic, which received a new constitution corresponding nearly to the Consulate in France, the Grand Pensionary being vested with even greater authority than the old Stadtholders had ever exercised, thus making the government of that country less republican.

Bonaparte's Personal Ambition.

Great Britain had to bear the brunt of the new struggle against Bonaparte's ambition, which aimed at universal dominion. The new contest was different from the one which had just closed. The French Revolutionists had fought to resist foreign invasion and to rescue neighboring peoples from the rule of tyrants, but Bonaparte's aim was simply that of individual aggrandizement and the gratification of military ambition. He desired to be master of Europe, and allowed no notion of personal freedom or no idea of national right to interfere with his plans.

His Immense Resources.

Bonaparte had immense resources at his command. The political life of the French Revolution had been ended by his military despotism, but the new social vigor which the Revolution had given to France through the abolition of privileges and the creation of a new middle class on the ruins of the clergy and the nobility still remained. The First Consul's policy silenced the dissensions which had torn France asunder. The features of this policy were the restoration of the Roman Catholic Church in France by the Concordat, his recall of one hundred and fifty thousand Emigrant exiles, and the economy and wise administration which distinguished his rule. The centralized system of government bequeathed by the Bourbon monarchy to the Revolution

and by the Revolution to Bonaparte enabled him easily to seize this national vigor for the benefit of his own despotism.

His Despotism.

The end of the brilliant hopes which the Revolution had raised, the desire for social order, the military enthusiasm and the impulse of the new glory brought by the wonderful French victories made a tyranny possible; and Bonaparte maintained this tyranny by a secret police, by the suppression of liberty of the press and of all freedom of opinion, and by his iron will and his immense ability. When he had been chosen First Consul for life, in 1802, he felt himself secure at home, and turned restlessly to the work of aggression and encroachment on the neighboring nations.

Great Britain, Bonaparte's Unconquerable Enemy.

Although the Whigs and the Tories of Great Britain had disagreed as to the policy to be pursued toward the French Revolution at its outbreak, both parties were agreed as to the war against Bonaparte's ambition. Great Britain was the only European nation which yet retained freedom in any sense. Said Sir James Mackintosh, one of the chief Whig leaders: "Every other monument of European liberty has perished. That ancient fabric which has been gradually raised by the wisdom and virtue of our forefathers still stands, but it stands alone and it stands among ruins!"

Great Britain, the World's Saviour against Bonaparte.

Had Great Britain fallen before the arms of Bonaparte despotism would have become universal throughout Europe. Great Britain stood between Bonaparte and universal conquest. She was his one unconquerable enemy. Had she been conquered the rest of the world would have fallen prostrate at his feet. Europe and the world owe an immense debt of gratitude to Great Britain for her heroic and persistent struggle against the giant power of the man whom the French Revolution had raised up; as she was the world's saviour against universal conquest, against the ambition and the apparently-invincible arms of this supposed "Man of Destiny."

Bonaparte's Threatened Invasion of England.

As Great Britain was his greatest and most powerful enemy, it was at Great Britain that Bonaparte determined to strike the first blow in his career of conquest now about to open. Said he, alluding to the disproportion in the populations of Great Britain and France: "Fifteen millions of people must give way to forty millions." His effort to strike at Great Britain's power in India by arousing the Mahrattas to war was thwarted by the defeat of the Mahrattas by Sir Arthur Wellesley at Assayé in 1803, and by the capture of Delhi and Agra by another British force under General Lake; but Bonaparte planned an invasion of England on a vast scale. The French, Dutch and Spanish fleets were to assist in the enterprise; and a camp of a hundred thousand men was established at Boulogne for the ostensible purpose of making a descent upon the English coast.

NAPOLEON AND HIS MARSHALS

Pitt's New Ministry in Great Britain.

Great Britain's peril recalled Mr. Pitt to power in 1804 and united both political parties in that country against Bonaparte. Upon Mr. Addington's retirement Pitt proposed to give Mr. Fox and the leading Whigs places in his Ministry, but in this he was frustrated by the king's bigotry; and the refusal of Wyndham and Lord Grenville to take office without Fox and the subsequent retirement of his ablest supporter, Dundas, from his post left Pitt almost alone. Pitt's health was broken, and his appearance was haggard and depressed; but he faced the difficulty and danger with his old-time courage.

Bonaparte's Despotism and His Court.

Being an arbitrary and power-loving man, Bonaparte desired to direct and govern everything himself, and he thus created a pernicious system of centralization which crushed every vital circulation and planted the seeds of death in the whole body-politic of France. After his efforts to reconcile the old with the new, to combine the results of the Revolution with the forms and manners of the monarchical period, he very soon showed his preference for the old system by the restoration of the former arrangements and customs. The First Consul's court in the Tuileries was marked by the return of the fashions of the Bourbon period, the forms of the old etiquette and the elegance of the royal period. An aristocratic demeanor, a dignified bearing and polished manners were again esteemed as advantages of good society.

His Family and Partisans.

The social gifts of Bonaparte's wife Josephine, the beauty and amiability of his stepchildren, Eugene and Hortense Beauharnais, and his sisters Pauline and Elise, aided him in his new efforts. The favor shown to the recalled Emigrants made them pliant and courteous in Bonaparte's service. Madame de Staël, Necker's daughter, collected a circle of accomplished and illustrious men in her salon, as she had formerly done. French vanity favored Bonaparte's efforts, and republicans and royalists eagerly grasped for the Legion of Honor.

His Curtailment of Popular Liberty.

Bonaparte's despotic nature found no pleasure in a life of freedom, thus causing him to curtail the liberty and political rights of the citizens, to persecute the Jacobins and the republicans, whom he called "Ideologists," and to repose his confidence in his guard and in his vigorous police under the crafty Fouché. Frequent royalist and republican plots against the First Consul's life were always punished with fresh restrictions and a more rigorous system of espionage.

Conspiracy against Bonaparte.

In the early part of 1804 a conspiracy against the authority of Bonaparte, in which Generals Moreau and Pichegru, and George Cadoudal, the Vendean chief, were implicated, was discovered. Moreau was allowed to retire into voluntary exile in America; Pichegru died a violent death in prison, and George Cadoudal was guillotined. Bonaparte, suspecting that the young Duke d'Enghien, a kinsman of the late royal family of France, was engaged in a plot for his assassina-

tion, caused the young prince, who was then living in the neutral territory of Baden, to be arrested and brought to Vincennes. After a trial by a court-martial, in which all the forms of justice were disregarded, the duke was sentenced to death in the night, and was immediately shot in the ditches of the castle-yard of Vincennes. This horrible crime is the greatest blot upon the character of Bonaparte. It at once ended the praises of his admirers. The poet Chateaubriand, author of the *Genius of Christianity*, resigned the office which Bonaparte's sister Elise had conferred upon him and retired into Switzerland.

Execution of the Duke d' Enghien.

Napoleon I., Emperor of the French.

Bonaparte made use of the royalist conspiracies to establish an hereditary monarchy. France was insecure so long as one man's death involved the fall of the government. At the instigation of Bonaparte's partisans, the proposal to make the First Consul an Emperor was made to the Tribunate, sanctioned by a decree of the Senate, May 18, 1804, ratified by the Corps Legislatif and confirmed by the votes of the French people. On December 2d of the same year (1804) NAPOLEON I. was crowned *Emperor of the French* in the Cathedral of Notre Dame by Pope Pius VII., who had been induced to come to Paris for that purpose. Napoleon, however, placed the crown on his own head and on that of his wife Josephine, who knelt before him. During the same year (1804) the Emperor Francis II. of Germany assumed the title of FRANCIS I., *Emperor of Austria*, thus founding the Austrian Empire.

Francis I., Emperor of Austria.

Napoleon's Imperial Court.

Napoleon's magnificent coronation was the end of the First French Republic, for which so much blood had been shed; and the old monarchical system gradually returned. The new Emperor of the French surrounded himself with a brilliant court, in which the old titles, orders and gradations of rank were revived under new names. He retained his old military simplicity; but the members of his family were created princes and princesses; his generals became marshals, and the devoted servants and promoters of his plans were connected with the throne as the great officers of the crown or as Senators with large incomes. The establishment of a new feudal nobility, with the old titles of princes, dukes, counts and barons, completed the magnificent structure of a brilliant imperial court, which soon outshone the other courts of Europe. Cambacéres became Arch Chancellor; Lebrun, Arch Treasurer; Prince Joseph Bonaparte, Grand Elector; and Prince Louis Bonaparte, Constable.

New French Feudal Nobility.

Napoleon's Imperial Despotism.

The republican system gradually disappeared from France. The old calendar was restored; the new nobility were allowed to establish the right of primogeniture; the press was placed under a censorship, and civil freedom was more and more restricted. The Emperor Napoleon I. could not tolerate any opposition; and for that reason he first re-

duced the Tribunate to fifty members, and then abolished the whole Tribunate, A. D. 1807. The only alternative thenceforth was obedience, and France was subjected to a tyranny more severe than that of the old Bourbon monarchy. But, as the tyrant was a great man, the French people willingly submitted to him. No matter how severely the rigorous conscription, the stringent restrictions upon trade and heavy taxation might press upon them, the burden was borne all the more lightly, as the great ends of the Revolution—equality before the law, the peasants' right of property in the soil and other possessions—were left undisturbed.

Material Prosperity of France and Splendor of Paris.

Industry made great progress; civil arts and trade received a mighty impulse, and an unusual prosperity became visible in every part of France. Magnificent roads, like those over the Alps, canals, bridges and all kinds of improvements still exist as eloquent memorials of the restless activity of this wonderful man. Paris was adorned with magnificent palaces, majestic bridges and noble streets. The Louvre contained all that was great or magnificent in the production of art. The French capital shone with a splendor never before witnessed. The University of Paris was arranged upon a most magnificent footing and was appointed the supreme court of supervision over the entire system of schools and education. The glory conferred upon the French nation by its Emperor rendered every yoke light to the nation. The French people forgot that the voice of freedom was passing away in the midst of the clash of arms and the clang of trumpets, and that the high-sounding tone of bulletins and the ornate language of the Senate and the Corps Legislatif were destructive of truth and justice.

Napoleon's Threatened Invasion of England.

After assuming the title of Emperor, Napoleon appeared in the camp at Boulogne, and said: "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours, and we are masters of the world." An invasion of England was now imminent, but Napoleon's skillfully-combined plan for a division of the British fleet while the entire French navy was in the English Channel was delayed by the death of the French admiral who was to execute it.

War between Great Britain and Spain.

The British government, believing that Spain had secretly united with France in hostility to Great Britain, caused several of the Spanish treasure-ships, while on their home voyage from South America, to be seized in the fall of 1804 without a previous declaration of war. The Spanish government, upon hearing of this hasty and unjustifiable act, was so exasperated that it immediately declared war against Great Britain and entered into a close alliance with France, December, 1804.

Napoleon, King of Italy.

On the 26th of May, 1805, Napoleon was crowned *King of Italy* at Milan. The iron crown of Charlemagne was brought forward for the occasion; and Napoleon, placing it on his head, uttered the words:

"God has given it to me. Beware of touching it." Eugene Beauharnais, Napoleon's stepson, was appointed viceroy of the *Kingdom of Italy*, which was enlarged by the annexation of Parma; while Napoleon assigned Lucca to his sister Elise, the wife of the Corsican Bacciochi. Genoa was annexed to France.

Napoleon's Threatened Invasion of England.

Napoleon's alliance with Spain placed the Spanish fleet at his disposal in 1805; and he formed a new scheme for the combination of the French and Spanish fleets, for crushing the squadron under Admiral Cornwallis before Lord Nelson's fleet could come to its rescue, and for thus making a descent upon the English coast by the vast armament. Great Britain made gigantic preparations to resist the threatened invasion, and three hundred thousand volunteers mustered for that purpose. But Mr. Pitt trusted more to the new coalition which he formed against Napoleon on the Continent of Europe.

SECTION VII.—NAPOLEON'S AUSTRO-RUSSIAN WAR OF 1805 AND RESULTS.

Coalition of Austria, Russia, Sweden and Great Britain.

The general alarm created by the usurpations of Napoleon in Germany, Holland, Italy and Switzerland, and the influence of English gold, induced Austria, Russia and Sweden to unite in a coalition with Great Britain against France, August, 1805. There was a strong party in Prussia, under the high-spirited queen, Louisa, and Prince Louis Ferdinand, in favor of joining the coalition against the Emperor of the French; but the three Ministers—Haugwitz, Lucchesini and Lombard—who were favorable to France and wholly lacking in patriotism, still possessed the confidence of the peace-loving King Frederick William III. Thus Prussia remained neutral for the time, to her subsequent sorrow.

Napoleon's March against the Austrians and Russians.

While the attention of all Europe was directed to Boulogne, where Napoleon was fitting out his vast armament for the invasion of England, he was silently making his preparations for the memorable campaign of 1805. His talents for command and his military genius were never displayed in a more brilliant light than in this campaign. With the greatest promptitude, Napoleon suddenly broke up his camp at Boulogne, assembled an army on the Rhine and marched eastward for the purpose of driving the Austrians out of Bavaria, which they had invaded in utter disregard of neutral rights.

Assured of the assistance of most of the South German princes, Napoleon crossed the Rhine in September, 1805, with seven divisions commanded by his most experienced marshals—Ney, Murat, Lannes, Soult, Marmont and others; while Bernadotte disregarded Prussia's

neutrality by marching through the Brandenburg margravate of Anspach-Bayreuth upon the Isar. This violation of Prussian territory so irritated King Frederick William III. that he entered into closer relationship with the allies and assumed a menacing attitude, without declaring war, waiting for a favorable opportunity. The Electors of Baden, Würtemberg and Bavaria, the Dukes of Hesse and Nassau and other German princes reinforced Napoleon's army with their troops; as they had as much to expect from his grace as they had to fear from his frowns.

His Invasion of Germany and Violation of Prussian Territory.

In the meantime, after Marshal Ney's victory at Elchingen, October 14, 1805, the Austrian detachment under General Mack was shut up in Ulm and cut off from the main army of the allies. Helpless and despairing of deliverance, the incompetent General Mack opened negotiations with the French, which ended in his disgraceful capitulation, by which he surrendered Ulm with thirty-three thousand Austrian troops, including thirteen generals, as prisoners of war, and all their colors, magazines and artillery, October 20, 1805. With the deepest humiliation the heroic Austrian warriors marched before Napoleon, laid down their arms before the victor, placed forty banners at his feet and delivered up sixty cannon with their horses. A division of twenty thousand Austrians, which had escaped from Ulm, was surrounded and captured at Nördlingen. General Mack was court-martialed and deprived of his command by order of the Austrian government.

Mack's Capitulation of Ulm.

On the very next day after Mack's disgraceful capitulation at Ulm the naval power of France received a blow from which it never recovered. The French fleet under Admiral Villeneuve, after sailing from Toulon, united with the Spanish fleet under Admiral Gravina at Corunna. Then the combined fleets sailed toward the West Indies, but suddenly returned to Cadiz and hastened to unite with the French squadron at Brest and to crush the British fleet in the Channel. But the headlong pursuit by the British fleet under Lord Nelson before the maneuver of the allied fleets was complete brought the two fleets face to face off Cape Trafalgar, on the south-western coast of Spain, where the decisive naval combat was fought, October 21, 1805.

Naval Battle of Trafalgar.

On the eve of the battle Nelson had read from the mast-head of his flag-ship the famous signal: "England expects every man to do his duty." A deafening shout went up from the whole British fleet, thus declaring every man's acceptance of the heroic admiral's appeal. This was Nelson's last order. He was struck by a musket-ball in the very heat of the conflict, while standing on the deck of his flag-ship, the *Victory*. He drew his cloak about him and covered his face with his handkerchief, so that his crew might not see that he was wounded.

Nelson's Signal, Victory and Death.

He was carried below, and the battle went on for three hours while he was in his death-agony. Learning at last that his fleet had gained a complete victory, England's greatest naval hero's soul departed, with the exclamation: "Thank God, I have done my duty!" The French admiral, Villeneuve, committed suicide in despair. Most of the French and Spanish vessels were captured.

Honors to Nelson and His Companions.

Upon hearing of this great victory, Pitt gave utterance to these words: "England has saved herself by her courage. She will save Europe by her example." Nelson's victory was dearly purchased with his death, and his country's grief was shown by the honors paid to his memory. His brother was raised to the peerage. His widow was granted a liberal pension. His remains were deposited in St. Paul's Cathedral, accompanied by a procession more splendid than any that had ever been witnessed on a similar occasion; and a monument was erected to his memory at the public expense, as a lasting testimony of national gratitude. His companions in victory also received rewards. Admiral Collingwood was raised to the peerage, and a liberal provision was made for the wounded and for the families of the slain. In London this victory is commemorated by the name of Trafalgar Square, and no other Englishman has been honored like Nelson.

Prussia's Menace to Napoleon.

The war party in Prussia had gained the ascendency since Bernadotte's violation of Prussian territory. During a visit of the Czar Alexander I. to Berlin he and King Frederick William III. swore eternal friendship for each other and enmity to Napoleon, over the coffin of Frederick the Great, in the church of the garrison at Potsdam; after which the Prussian king sent his Minister Haugwitz with threatening demands to Napoleon.

Battle of Dirnstein and Napoleon's Occupation of Vienna.

Proceeding in his victorious career along the Danube, in the Austrian territories, Napoleon defeated the Russians under Kutusoff and Bagration in a series of bloody engagements, the most important of which was the battle of Dirnstein, November 11, 1805. Napoleon entered Vienna, November 13, 1805; and the Prince of Auersburg, who had orders either to defend the bridge over the Danube, which was fortified and filled with gunpowder, or to blow it into the air, suffered himself to be so thoroughly deceived by the French general's craft and by pretended negotiations for peace that he surrendered it to the French without any defense and in good condition.

Austro-Russian Retreat.

The irresolution of the Emperor Francis II. and the dissensions between the Austrians and the Russians facilitated the victory of the French, who pursued the Austro-Russian army into Moravia, defeating it in constant engagements and capturing an immense booty.

At Austerlitz, in Moravia, December 2, 1805, was fought the *Three Emperors' Battle*, in which the winter sun shone upon the most brilliant

of all Napoleon's victories. The allied Austrians and Russians lost ten thousand men killed, while twenty thousand were taken prisoners, and one hundred and twenty cannon were among the spoils of victory. The Emperors of Germany and Russia witnessed the battle from a neighboring eminence; and after the battle the Emperor Francis II., who desired peace, allowed himself to be persuaded to pay an humble visit to Napoleon in his tent, and consented to an armistice stipulating for the retreat of the Russians from the Austrian states.

Three Emperors' Battle of Austerlitz.

The negotiations which then commenced ended in the Peace of Pressburg between France and Austria, December 26, 1805, by which Austria relinquished territory containing three million inhabitants. Thus the House of Hapsburg lost the territory of Venice, which was annexed to Napoleon's Kingdom of Italy; the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, which were annexed to Bavaria; and a part of Austria, of which the Breisgau and the lands of the Black Forest were assigned to Baden. This treaty conferred the title of kings upon the Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg, Napoleon's allies; while Baden was erected into a grand-duchy.

Peace of Pressburg.

The new Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg and the Grand Duke of Baden were united with the Bonaparte dynasty by ties of relationship. The daughter of the new Bavarian king, Maximilian Joseph, was married to Napoleon's stepson, Eugene Beauharnais. Catharine, the daughter of the King of Würtemberg, was married to Napoleon's frivolous brother, Jerome Bonaparte, who had just been divorced from his citizen wife. Charles, the grandson of the Grand Duke of Baden, was married to Stephanie Beauharnais, a niece of the Empress Josephine, who had been adopted by Napoleon. The lands on the Lower Rhine were annexed to the Duchy of Cleve-Berg, with the capital Düsseldorf, and conferred upon Joachim Murat, who had married Napoleon's sister Pauline.

Royal Intermarriages of Napoleon's Family and Relatives.

Napoleon compelled Holland to accept a monarchical government in the place of her republican constitution, and conferred the crown of the new kingdom upon his brother Louis Bonaparte. The royal family of Naples had violated its neutrality by receiving an Anglo-Russian fleet which had landed at Naples during the war; and on the day after the Peace of Pressburg, December 27, 1805, Napoleon published a decree that "the dynasty of the Bourbons has ceased to reign in Naples." Napoleon conferred the crown of Naples on his brother Joseph Bonaparte, who was installed in his new dignity by a French army under Marshal Massena, which invaded the Kingdom of Naples just as the British and Russians were withdrawn in consequence of the battle of Austerlitz. King Ferdinand IV. fled to Sicily; but his high-spirited queen, Caroline, remained at Naples and raised an army of lazzaroni and brigands, which she reinforced by convicts from the

Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland.

Joseph Bonaparte, King of Naples.

jails. The better class of Neapolitans hailed the French as deliverers from the disorderly and dangerous rabble, and Marshal Massena entered the city without resistance. Joseph Bonaparte's army was defeated at Maïda by the British under General Stuart, in July, 1806; and his dominion was further menaced by a general rising of the Neapolitan peasantry, incited by the agents of Queen Caroline; but, after capturing Gaëta, Marshal Massena suppressed the insurrection and restored order.

Neapolitan Resistance.

Fiefs of the Empire.

Napoleon endowed his sisters with Italian principalities, and his favorite marshals and statesmen were rewarded by the investiture of newly-created "fiefs of the Empire." Thus Berthier became Prince of Neuchâtel; Talleyrand became Prince of Benevento, and Bernadotte became Prince of Ponte Corvo.

Napoleon's Aggressions on Prussia.

After the battle of Austerlitz the Prussian ambassador Haugwitz did not venture to convey the charge of his court to the victorious French Emperor. Without asking permission from his king, Haugwitz suffered himself to be induced, partly by threats and partly by Napoleon's engaging affability, to sign an unfavorable treaty, by which Prussia exchanged the Franconian principality of Anspach, some lands on the Lower Rhine and the principality of Neuremberg in Switzerland for Hanover, the hereditary German possession of the King of Great Britain. King Frederick William III. vainly opposed the exchange, which threatened to involve him in war with Great Britain. As he was separated from Austria by the conclusion of the Peace of Pressburg, he had no other alternative than to submit to the victor's terms. Thus the King of Prussia tore to pieces the treaty which he had signed with the Czar over the grave of Frederick the Great, and he congratulated the Emperor of the French upon his great victory at Austerlitz. Napoleon coldly replied: "This compliment was intended for another, but Fortune has changed the address."

Pitt's Death.

The news of the sudden change of affairs caused by the battle of Austerlitz hurried Mr. Pitt, the British Prime Minister, to an early grave. Upon hearing of the defeat of Great Britain's allies in that great battle, he pointed to a map of Europe which hung on the wall, saying: "Roll up that map. It will not be wanted these ten years." Though he was only forty-seven, his hollow voice and wasted frame had long told that his days were few; and the great blow to his hopes involved in the failure of the coalition which he had raised up proved fatal to him. He died January 23, 1806, his last words being: "Alas! my country!" He was honored with a public funeral; and his remains were interred in Westminster Abbey, besides those of his illustrious father. Lord Wellesley exclaimed: "What grave contains such a father and such a son! What sepulcher embosoms the remains

of so much human excellence and glory!" Wilberforce wrote in his diary: "Austerlitz killed Pitt." A monument was erected to his memory at the national expense.

Fox's Ministry and Death.

Pitt had been the soul of the coalition against Napoleon. His rival, Mr. Fox, succeeded him as Prime Minister of Great Britain and opened negotiations for peace, which, however, failed; and Mr. Fox was as resolute in opposing the ambition of Napoleon as Pitt had been. Both parties in England sustained Mr. Fox in this policy, and all internal questions were subordinated to this one question of saving Europe from the grasping power of Napoleon. But in September, 1806, Fox also passed to his grave; and Lord Grenville became his successor as Prime Minister of Great Britain.

Napoleon's Designs on the Germano-Roman Empire.

The most decisive act in Napoleon's foreign policy was the subversion of the Germano-Roman Empire, the constitution of which had already received a terrible blow by the elevation of the Elector of Bavaria and the Duke of Würtemberg to the rank of independent kings. Napoleon therefore entertained the project of removing Southern and Western Germany entirely from the influence of Austria and of uniting them under his own power. Self-interest was more powerful than patriotism with these German princes, who subordinated the interests of the German Fatherland to their own individual aggrandizement. A prospect of enlarging their own respective territories, and fear of the mighty potentate who seemed absolutely invincible in arms, induced many of the German princes to transfer their allegiance from the German Emperor to the French Emperor.

Confederation of the Rhine.

Accordingly sixteen princes in the South and West of Germany—including the Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg, the Grand Dukes of Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt and the Prince-Primate—concluded a treaty with Napoleon at Paris, July 12, 1806, by which they seceded from the German Empire, formed the *Confederation of the Rhine*, or, as it is called in German, the *Rheinbund*, and placed themselves under Napoleon's protection; while the French Emperor, as Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, recognized the full sovereignty of the individual members of the Confederation on condition of their maintaining a certain contingent of troops under arms and at his disposal. Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Nassau and several others of the most important German states formed the nucleus around which the lesser principalities, such as Hohenzollern, Leichtenstein, Solms and others, collected themselves, until at length almost all of the German states joined the Rhenish Confederation. The Elector-Archchancellor Dalberg—who had been made Prince-Primate, and who had received Frankfort, along with Hanau and Fulda, in Hesse-Cassel, as a principality—was made Napoleon's representative in the Confedera-

tion of the Rhine. The power of most of the princes of the Confederation was considerably augmented by the subjection of many small and formerly-independent states of the German Empire under Napoleon's dominion.

End of the Germano-Roman Empire.

On August 1, 1806, the French ambassador at Ratisbon notified the German Imperial Diet that his sovereign, having accepted the Protectorate of the Confederation of the Rhine, no longer recognized the existence of the German Empire; and on August 6, 1806, Francis II. published a declaration in which he stated that, finding it impossible to fulfill the obligations which devolved upon him as the elective head of the German nation, he considered the bonds which attached him to the Germanic body-politic forever dissolved, renounced the title of the elective office of Emperor of Germany, withdrew the whole of his hereditary Austrian states from the German Union, and thereafter reigned only as Francis I., hereditary Emperor of Austria, which title he had assumed in 1804 and which has ever since been borne by the imperial House of Hapsburg.

Renunciation by Emperor Francis I.

Debasement of Germany.

Thus ended the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation, after an existence of one thousand and six years, from the time that Pope Leo III. placed the diadem of the Cæsars upon the head of Charlemagne, A. D. 800. It had long been reduced to a mere shadow by internal dissensions and a powerless imperial government. Its mightiest limbs had now become the vassals of a foreign despot. Many a patriotic German heart felt keenly the degradation of the Fatherland; but none dared to utter their inmost thoughts after the bookseller Palm, of Nuremberg, had become the victim of an infamous judicial murder for his refusal to give the name of the author of a pamphlet which he published on the debasement of Germany.

Palm's Judicial Murder.

Addition to Napoleon's Military Strength.

The accession of so numerous and powerful a vassalage was of vast importance to Napoleon, as it placed an army of seventy thousand men at his disposal—a number afterward increased to one hundred and twenty thousand by the enlargement of the Confederation of the Rhine.

The German Princes and Prussia.

The princes of the Confederation of the Rhine had kept their movements secret from King Frederick William III. of Prussia; although his brother-in-law, the Prince of Orange, who had been deprived of the Stadtholdership of Holland, thereby became a vassal of Joachim Murat, Napoleon's brother-in-law, the new Grand Duke of Berg.

Momentous Results.

Such were the momentous results of Napoleon's celebrated campaign of 1805—the results of the great battle of Austerlitz and the Peace of Pressburg—Austria humiliated at the French Emperor's feet and the thousand-year-old Germano-Roman Empire practically a complete wreck and in the final stages of dissolution.

SECTION VIII.—NAPOLEON'S PRUSSO-RUSSIAN WAR OF 1806–7 AND RESULTS.

Napoleon's Growing Rupture with Prussia.

The wavering policy of the King of Prussia during the late campaign in Germany and Austria had aroused Napoleon's anger, and convinced him that Frederick William III. would be untrustworthy as an ally and cowardly as an enemy. The French Emperor therefore cast aside all respect and forbearance, and intentionally inflicted many mortifications upon the Prussian government. The irritation thus produced soon developed into a complete rupture between France and Prussia from two causes.

His Frustration of Prussia's Designs.

The formation of the Confederation of the Rhine indicated Napoleon's intention of gradually making Germany as dependent upon the French Empire as Italy and Holland were already. Prussia therefore attempted to thwart Napoleon's design by the formation of a North German Confederation in opposition to the Confederation of the Rhine, inviting all the German states which had not yet joined the Rhenish Confederation to join this rival league. Prussia was highly exasperated when Napoleon frustrated this project.

His Proposed Restoration of Hanover to King George III. of Great Britain.

At the same time it became known to the court of Berlin that, during the renewal of the negotiations for peace between France and Great Britain, Napoleon had offered to restore the Electorate of Hanover to King George III., without consulting Prussia on the subject, although that Electorate had been conferred upon the Prussian king by Napoleon after the Peace of Pressburg. The French Emperor had conferred Hanover on the King of Prussia, ostensibly as a reward for his neutrality during the Austerlitz campaign, but really for the purpose of involving him in a war with the King of Great Britain; and it had been considered a badge of his humiliation. Napoleon's design of wresting from King Frederick William III. the territory so recently conferred upon him was a mark of contempt too palpable to be endured.

Prussia's War Spirit and Her Isolation.

Napoleon's action in the case of Hanover, together with the violations of Prussian territory by the French, strengthened the war party at the Prussian court, in which Queen Louisa was the moving spirit and which also included the leading Prussian statesmen and generals. Unfortunately for herself, Prussia had lost the confidence of all Europe by her vacillation during Napoleon's Austro-Russian campaign of the previous year, when she finally decided not to join the coalition against France; and she now found that she had to oppose Napoleon's entire force with no immediate aid but that of the Elector Frederick Augustus of Saxony. Most of the Prussian generals were old men. Their commander-in-chief, Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, had won his spurs in

the Seven Years' War as the companion-in-arms of Frederick the Great.

Her Warlike Action.

Convinced that nothing was to be expected from France, the Prussian government issued an ultimatum demanding a redress of all grievances, placed its army on a war-footing and severed its diplomatic intercourse with France. While the people of Berlin were expecting the final answer from France, Napoleon and his experienced marshals with one hundred thousand troops were already in the heart of Thuringia and Saxony, the Elector of which had formed an alliance with Prussia after some hesitation. Thus Napoleon began his Prussian campaign of 1806 with his usual promptitude and energy, and while the Prussian commander expected to find the French forces dispersed in Franconia they were on his left flank and cutting off his communications with the Russians.

Napoleon's Invasion of Prussia.

Battles of Schleitz and Saalfeld.

The Prussians were defeated by Marshal Bernadotte at Schleitz and by Marshal Lannes at Saalfeld, where Prince Louis of Prussia was killed, October 10, 1806. When Napoleon got into the rear of the Prussian army, destroyed Naumberg, the chief place of deposit for the Prussian stores and magazines, and was marching on Leipsic the Duke of Brunswick perceived the true condition of affairs. He then attempted to retreat, accompanied by King Frederick William III., the Prince of Orange and many of the most distinguished Prussian generals, leaving a part of his army under Prince Hohenlohe at Jena; thus bringing on the great battles of Jena and Auerstadt, fought on the same day and which placed the Prussian monarchy prostrate at the feet of Napoleon, October 14, 1806.

Double Battle of Jena and Auerstadt.

Napoleon's Great Victory in that Double Battle.

At Jena one part of the French army under Napoleon annihilated the Prussian army under Prince Hohenlohe. Marshals Lannes, Augereau, Soult and Murat carried destruction into the Prussian ranks, driving their infantry and cavalry in headlong flight from the sanguinary field and compelling them to retreat to Weimar. The fleeing army of Prince Hohenlohe met the other portion of the Prussian army fleeing in the same wild panic from the sanguinary field of Auerstadt, where old Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick was defeated and mortally wounded by the French under Marshal Davoust. In this double battle of Jena and Auerstadt the victorious French lost fourteen thousand men and the vanquished Prussians forty thousand. On that fatal day the Prussians also lost twenty generals, sixty standards and three hundred cannon.

Rapid Surrender of Prussian Detachments.

The effect of this great catastrophe was that the former presumption and rashness of the Prussian generals turned to despondency and panic, and they became utterly helpless. The routed divisions of the Prussian army roamed about the country, seeking to escape, but every-

where falling an easy prey into the hands of the triumphant French. Mollendorf with fourteen thousand Prussian troops surrendered to the French under Marshals Ney and Murat at Erfurt. The Prussian corps under Kalkreuth was captured in the Hartz mountains. Eugene of Würtemberg and sixteen thousand Prussians were made prisoners at Halle. Prince Hohenlohe, with seventeen thousand men of his wrecked army, laid down his arms at Prenzlow. After a severe engagement at Lübeck, Blücher and his corps of twenty thousand Prussians surrendered at Schwerta. At Colberg the Prussian garrison under Gneisenau and Schill, with the support of the brave citizen Nettlebeck, heroically resisted the superior force of the French detachment which attacked them.

Quick Surrender of Prussian Fortresses.

With such wonderful celerity did the strong Prussian fortresses surrender to the French that the commandants of many of them were suspected of treachery. So utterly unaccountable did such cowardice and such entire lack of self-reliance appear. Thus the fortresses of Spandau, Stettin, Kustrin, Hamelen and Magdeburg all fell into the possession of the French. The garrison of Magdeburg, which numbered twenty thousand men, was superior in number to the French force to which it surrendered. Napoleon entered Berlin, the Prussian capital, October 25, 1806. The French Emperor visited the tomb of Frederick the Great, and sent the sword and insignia of that famous warrior king as precious trophies to Paris.

Napoleon's Continental System and the Paper Blockades.

In November, 1806, Napoleon issued his famous *Berlin Decree* from the royal palace at Berlin, declaring the British Isles in a state of blockade and excluding British manufacturers from the ports of Continental Europe, thus establishing the *Continental System*, by which Napoleon hoped to destroy English commerce and thus strike a deadly blow at the prosperity of his most powerful foe. Great Britain's retaliatory *Order-in-Council*, declaring the blockade of all Continental ports from which the British flag was excluded, was followed by Napoleon's *Milan Decree*, December 17, 1807, threatening the confiscation of any vessel submitting to British search. The paralyzing effects of the Continental System were mainly felt by the Continental nations; and, in spite of Napoleon's Berlin and Milan Decrees, contracts for the clothing of French soldiers had actually been made in England, as the Hanse towns were unable to execute such contracts.

French Conquests and Trophies.

In the meantime Louis Bonaparte conquered the country as far as the Weser, while Jerome Bonaparte subdued Silesia, and the Prussian monarchy was almost annihilated. Jena and East Friesland were annexed to Holland; and the Hanse towns and Leipsic were deprived of English goods and oppressed with heavy military taxes for the support of the French army; while the trophies of former Prussian vic-

tories and the treasures of art and science were seized by Napoleon's conquering troops and carried away.

Exile of the Elector of Hesse and the Duke of Brunswick.

The Elector of Hesse, who desired to remain neutral and who had withdrawn his forces from the struggle, was obliged to surrender both his dominions and his army to the French and to seek refuge in exile. He took up his residence at Prague. Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, who had been severely wounded at Auerstadt and who was conveyed into his capital on a litter, was forced to seek an asylum in Denmark to die unmolested. He died on the way, and his son swore to avenge him.

Saxony's Alliance with Napoleon.

Only to the Elector of Saxony, whose troops fought on the Prussian side at Jena, did the French Emperor show any favor. He released his Saxon prisoners and granted the Elector a favorable peace and conferred upon him the title of king; whereupon that German prince joined the Confederation of the Rhine, as the other Saxon dukes had done. Thenceforth Frederick Augustus of Saxony, to his own misfortune and that of his subjects, felt himself under obligation by the ties of gratitude to remain an ally of Napoleon.

Russia's Aid to Prussia.

The King of Prussia fled to Königsberg, where he vainly endeavored to obtain peace, as Napoleon's demands rose with his fortunes. King Frederick William III. in his distress solicited the aid of the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, who immediately sent a powerful army under Benningsen into East Prussia for the purpose of preventing the French from crossing the Vistula.

Napoleon's Incitement of a Polish Revolt.

Thereupon Napoleon issued a proclamation to the Poles, pretendedly in Kosciuszko's name, by which he summoned those oppressed and wronged people to fight for their liberty and independence. The Poles gladly made the greatest sacrifices and reinforced the French ranks with their heroic soldiers under Dombrowski's command. Napoleon entered Warsaw, November 30, 1806, amid the rejoicings of the inhabitants; but the Poles soon discovered that the French Emperor was more intent upon the gratification of his own ambition than upon the reëstablishment of Polish independence. Kosciuszko, who had accepted the Czar's protection and who felt that his countrymen had nothing to gain by a change of tyrants, disavowed and discouraged the Polish rising.

His Incitement of a Russo-Turkish War.

In order to prevent the Emperor of Russia from sending aid to the King of Prussia, Napoleon embroiled the Czar in a quarrel with the Sultan of Turkey. General Sebastiani, the French ambassador at Constantinople, had so great an influence over the Divan that the Sublime Porte was for some time wholly under his direction. He fanned the spark of discord already existing between the Czar and the Sultan and prevailed upon the Porte to refuse to renew the treaty of alliance with Great Britain. The Emperor Alexander I. ordered General Michelson

FRIEDLAND

From the Painting by E. Meissonier in Metropolitan Museum of Art

to occupy the Turkish tributary provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia; whereupon Turkey declared war against Russia, December 30, 1806, but deviated from a barbarous custom by allowing M. d'Italinski, the Russian ambassador at the Turkish capital, to depart unmolested.

British Demonstrations against Constantinople and Egypt.

A few days later Mr. Arbuthnot, the British ambassador at Constantinople, left that city, after having repeatedly demanded the renewal of the alliance between Great Britain and Turkey and the expulsion of General Sebastiani from the Turkish capital. In January, 1807, a British squadron under Admiral Duckworth forced the passage of the Dardanelles and appeared before Constantinople, where he demanded that the Ottoman fleet and the forts on the Dardanelles should be surrendered to him and that the Sublime Porte should renounce the alliance with Bonaparte and cede Moldavia and Wallachia to Russia. Admiral Duckworth's appearance created a panic at Constantinople, but his delay gave the Turks time to prepare for defense, and under General Sebastiani's direction they made such preparations that the British fleet was obliged to repass at the end of a week. Upon arriving at Malta, Admiral Duckworth took five thousand British troops under General Fraser on board his ships and conveyed them to Egypt, which had been distracted by civil war between the Turks and the Mamelukes ever since the French evacuation of the country in 1801. The British under General Fraser occupied Alexandria, March 20, 1807, but were obliged to surrender that city by capitulation to Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, six months later.

British Expeditions against Buenos Ayres.

Other British expeditions during 1806 and 1807 were unusually unsuccessful. A British armament under Sir Home Popham had taken Buenos Ayres, in South America, from the Spaniards; but the city was afterward recovered by its inhabitants, and another British armament under General Whitelocke failed signally and disgracefully in its efforts to recapture the town.

Battles of Pultusk and Eylau.

Sanguinary battles were fought between the Russians and the French on the Vistula, and torrents of blood were shed. The Russians had the advantage in the battle of Pultusk, December 26, 1806. On February 8, 1807, a sanguinary but indecisive battle was fought at Eylau, in East Prussia, between one hundred thousand French troops under Napoleon and the same number of Russians under Benningsen. Each army claimed the victory, each lost twenty thousand men and both were so weakened and exhausted that military operations were suspended for four months. Although the field of Eylau remained in Napoleon's possession during the battle, his terrible losses caused him to fall back to the Vistula and to offer peace.

Prussia Refuses Peace.

The King of Prussia, who had just been reassured by a fresh treaty with Russia and Great Britain, receiving a subsidy of a million pounds

sterling from the latter power, in turn refused Napoleon's peace offers. Although King Frederick William III. desired peace in order to free his subjects from the dreadful exactions of the French, he was too honest to desert his ally, the Czar of Russia.

Surrender of Silesian Fortresses and of Dantzic.

At last the Silesian fortresses on the Oder—Glogau, Brieg, Schweidnitz and Breslau—came into the possession of the French through the cowardice of the commandants of the garrisons; and even the strongly-fortified Prussian town of Dantzic, on the Baltic coast, was surrendered, with its garrison of seventeen thousand men under Kalkreuth and nine hundred cannon, to the French under Marshal Lefevre, May 24, 1807, after a vigorous siege. These losses made the King of Prussia despair of a successful issue of the war.

Battles of Hielsberg and Friedland.

After an interruption of four months, the campaign between the main armies opened; and thirty thousand French troops were disastrously repulsed in an attack upon the strong Russian position at Hielsberg, June 5, 1807. On June 14, 1807—the anniversary of the battle of Marengo—Napoleon severely defeated the Russian army under Benningsen, two hundred thousand strong, in the great and decisive battle of Friedland, with the loss of sixty thousand men. The shattered hosts of the Russian army retreated to the banks of the Niemen, and the French took possession of Königsberg and Tilsit.

Meeting of the French and Russian Emperors at Tilsit.

Hostilities were now suspended; and, amid the cheers of both armies, the French and Russian Emperors met on a raft moored in the middle of the Niemen at Tilsit, where negotiations for peace were opened. The Czar Alexander I., who appears to have conceived a sudden and romantic admiration for Napoleon similar to that which his predecessor, Peter III., had entertained for Frederick the Great, assured the French Emperor that he fully shared his dislike for Great Britain and that he was ready to unite with him in measures to diminish her power. Thereupon Napoleon declared that if such was the case peace was made already.

Napoleon and Queen Louisa of Prussia.

King Frederick William III. of Prussia, with his high-spirited queen, Louisa, soon made his appearance at Tilsit, but was not admitted by Napoleon to the same footing of equality with the Emperor Alexander I. Queen Louisa of Prussia, who had the gifts of beauty, wit and grace, exerted herself to her utmost to gain Napoleon's good will in order to obtain favorable terms of peace for her husband. But Napoleon, according to his own boast to Josephine, "was as proof against all her ladylike artifices as waxcloth against rain." During these conferences, on one occasion, Napoleon offered the Queen of Prussia a beautiful rose. The fascinating queen at first appeared to decline receiving the courtesy, but then accepted it with the remark: "At least with Magdeburg." Napoleon replied: "Your Majesty will be pleased to

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

AFTER A PAINTING BY PAUL DELAROCHE.

remember that it is I who offer and that Your Majesty has only the task of accepting."

Peace of Tilsit.

By the Peace of Tilsit, signed July 7, 1807, Prussia was partitioned. The eastern portion of that kingdom—which had once formed a part of the Republic of Poland—was erected into the *Grand Duchy of Warsaw* and was bestowed on the King of Saxony, Napoleon's new ally; while Dantzic was erected into a free state. The western portion of Prussia—the portion between the Rhine and the Elbe—along with Electoral Hesse, the Duchy of Brunswick and the southern portion of the Electorate of Hanover, was erected into the *Kingdom of Westphalia*, which was conferred on JEROME BONAPARTE, Napoleon's youngest brother, whose capital was fixed at Cassel; Jerome, as a member of the Confederation of the Rhine, being required to furnish his imperial brother with Westphalian troops and to bestow upon him half of his revenues. The King of Prussia was left in possession of little more than half of his dominions, and even these would have been taken from him had it not been for the generous intercession of the Emperor Alexander I. in his behalf; while he was also required to pay an immense war-indemnity to his conqueror. The Emperor of Russia recognized the royal titles of Napoleon's brothers and agreed to aid Napoleon in his designs against British commerce by excluding British manufactures from the Russian dominions. thus recognizing the Continental System.

Partition of Prussia.

Jerome Bonaparte, King of Westphalia.

Arrogance of France, Russia and Great Britain.

The battles of Austerlitz and Jena had so completely broken the power of Austria and Prussia that the destinies of Europe were for several years controlled by France, Russia and Great Britain; and these three great powers paid no regard to the rights of the weak and defenseless nations of Europe, as was shown by their proceedings in Sweden and Denmark. Only where the power of self-defense was able to offer a successful resistance did these three great powers respect the rights of other nations. Each, in its eagerness to circumvent the plans of its enemies, violated the most sacred rights of other nations, even of those that desired to remain neutral.

Eccentricity and Obstinacy of Gustavus IV. of Sweden.

Although Russia and Prussia concluded peace with France, the eccentric Gustavus IV., King of Sweden, obstinately continued the war and held fast to his alliance with Great Britain. His conduct at first displayed strength of character and magnanimity, but his boundless conceit and his utter misapprehension of his position and his powers soon showed that his mind must be unbalanced. Strongly imbued with the sanctity of the principle of legitimate royal right, he refused to recognize Napoleon as Emperor of the French and addressed him simply as General Bonaparte. Completely given up to religious fanaticism, he believed himself ordained by Providence to restore the Bourbons to the

throne of France and to overthrow the "Beast of the Revelations," as he called Napoleon.

His Offense to Russia and Prussia.

Gustavus IV. carried his hatred against Napoleon to such an extent as to mortally offend Russia and Prussia by sending back their orders and expelling their ambassadors from Stockholm because those two powers had made peace with the French Emperor. The French conquered Stralsund and the island of Rugen, and a British expedition to aid the King of Sweden failed in its enterprise.

Fall of Lord Grenville's Ministry in Great Britain.

In the meantime Lord Grenville's Ministry—which had procured the abolition of the slave trade in the British colonies by act of Parliament, in February, 1807, through the efforts of William Wilberforce and against the fierce opposition of the Tory party and of the Liverpool slave merchants—was dismissed from office by King George III. upon the first intimation of their scheme for the removal of civil and political disabilities from Roman Catholics, March, 1807; and a new Ministry was formed of Mr. Pitt's friends under the Premiership of the Duke of Portland, but whose leading spirit was the young Secretary of Foreign Affairs, George Canning, a young and devoted adherent of Pitt. Canning's brilliant rhetoric gave him an influence over the House of Commons, while the vigor and breadth of his mind gave a new energy to the war against Napoleon.

Ministry of the Duke of Portland.

Great Britain and Sweden against France and Russia.

As Russia, the former ally of Great Britain and enemy of Napoleon, had by the Peace of Tilsit become the ally of Napoleon and the enemy of Great Britain, and as Austria and Prussia had been helplessly crushed at Austerlitz and Jena, Great Britain was obliged to struggle without any powerful allies against Napoleon's gigantic power; Sweden being then her only ally.

British Expedition to Denmark.

Great Britain, alarmed at the united efforts of France and Russia against her commerce and fearing that Napoleon would compel Denmark to aid in shutting up the Baltic against British vessels, sent a powerful fleet under Admiral Lord Gambier, conveying twenty thousand land troops under the Earl of Cathcart, to Copenhagen for the purpose of obtaining possession of the Danish fleet as a pledge until the close of the war. As the Danish government refused to surrender its fleet, a four days' bombardment of Copenhagen by the British army and navy followed, September 2–5, 1807, reducing a great part of the town to ashes, when the Danish fleet was surrendered. This outrageous and unprovoked attack of a strong power upon a weaker one excited universal indignation throughout Europe. Denmark, greatly exasperated, formed an alliance with Russia and France and declared war against Great Britain and Sweden.

Bombardment of Copenhagen.

Its Result.

In the meantime, while Russia was at war with Sweden, she was also prosecuting hostilities against Turkey. France lost her influence with

the Ottoman Porte when she entered into her alliance with Russia at Tilsit, in July, 1807; and thenceforth Great Britain directed the politics of the Divan. The Sultan's Ministers, whom General Sebastiani had won over to the interests of France, found themselves entirely discarded by the new Sultan Mahmoud II.; and Mr. Adair, the new British ambassador at Constantinople, concluded a treaty of peace with Turkey, January 5, 1809, by which the Sublime Porte confirmed to Great Britain the advantages which the treaty of 1675 had granted to them, as well as the navigation of the Black Sea, which Mr. Spencer Smith had obtained in 1799.

Russo-Turkish War of 1806–1812.

Turkey's Alliance with Great Britain.

In July, 1808, while the armies of Napoleon were engaged in Spain and those of Czar Alexander I. were employed in Finland, these two Emperors, who now controlled the destinies of Continental Europe, held their famous meeting at Erfurt, in Saxony, where the whole splendor of European magnificence was displayed and where four kings and thirty-four princes of Germany were assembled for the purpose of doing homage to the mighty potentate whose arms seemed invincible. Here the French and Russian Emperors agreed not to interrupt each other in their respective schemes of conquest; thus leaving Napoleon at liberty to do as he pleased in Spain, while Alexander I. was to be unmolested in his aggressions against Sweden in Finland and against Turkey in Moldavia and Wallachia.

Meeting of Napoleon and the Czar Alexander I. at Erfurt.

Russia was now at war with Great Britain, Sweden, Turkey and Persia. Her war with Persia had commenced in 1803, when the Czar Alexander I. had annexed Georgia to the Russian Empire, and continued until 1813. The chief events of this Russo-Persian war were the defeat of the Persians at Etschmiazin by the Russians under Prince Zianoff, June 20, 1804; the conquest of the Persian province of Shirvan by the same Russian general, January, 1806; the capture of Derbend by the Russians, July 3, 1806, and the defeat of the Persians by the Russian force under Paulucci at Alkolwalaki, September 1, 1810.

Russo-Persian War of 1801–1813

When Russia became involved in war with Turkey at the close of 1806 the Ottoman Empire appeared on the eve of dissolution. The Pasha Paswan Oglou of Widdin, Ali Pasha of Janina and the Servians under Czerni George were in revolt; the Pasha Djezzar of Syria was virtually independent; the sect of the Wahabees was in possession of Arabia; and Egypt was distracted by civil wars between the Turks and the Mamelukes. Sultan Selim III. was dethroned by a revolt of the Janizaries, May 29, 1807, when he attempted to remodel the Ottoman army, and was succeeded by his cousin Mustapha IV., who reigned only two months in the midst of the greatest confusion. Mustapha Pasha, an adherent of the deposed Selim III., marched on Constantinople with an army of forty thousand Albanians for the purpose of

Distracted Condition of the Ottoman Empire.

restoring the deposed Sultan. When Mustapha Pasha arrived at the walls of the Seraglio he was shocked with the sight of the dead body of Selim III., who had been put to death by the new Sultan's orders. Mustapha Pasha deposed Mustapha IV., and raised his brother Mahmoud II. to the Turkish throne. The first year of the new Sultan's reign was disturbed by an insurrection of the Janizaries, who set fire to the Grand Vizier's palace and blew it up with gunpowder; and the troubles were quelled only by the Sultan's concession in abolishing army reform.

Russo-Turkish Campaign of 1807.

The Russian campaign of 1807 in Turkey was not productive of any results, as the campaign against Napoleon occupied the attention of Russia. Czerni George and his revolted Servians took Belgrade, Sabatz and Nissa, invaded Bulgaria and united with the Russians, gaining many advantages. The Russians under General Michelson defeated the Turks at Giurgevo, March 17, 1807. In Asiatic Turkey the Russians under General Gudovitch defeated the Turks near Erzeroum, in Armenia, June 18, 1807. The Russian fleet under Vice-Admiral Siniawin defeated the Turkish fleet under the Capitan Pasha off the island of Lemnos. By the Peace of Tilsit the Emperor of Russia

An Armistice.

ageed to evacuate Moldavia and Wallachia and make peace with the Ottoman Porte, and the French General Guilleminot succeeded in negotiating an armistice at Slobosia, August 24, 1807; but, as the Czar Alexander I. refused to ratify the treaty, the Russians did not evacuate Moldavia and Wallachia, as provided for by the treaty.

Unsuccessful Negotiations.

As soon as the Emperor Alexander I. had returned to St. Petersburg from his splendid meeting with Napoleon at Erfurt he gave orders to open negotiations with the Ottoman Porte. The conference occurred at Jassy, in Moldavia; but it was immediately broken off after the Russian envoys had demanded the cession of Moldavia and Wallachia to Russia and the expulsion of the British ambassador from Constantinople as preliminary conditions. The Russian army under Prince

Russo-Turkish Campaign of 1809.

Bagration crossed the Danube and took possession of Ismail, but was defeated in a bloody battle at Tartaritza, near Silistria, September 26, 1809, and thus forced to raise the siege of Silistria. But this event closed the Russo-Turkish campaign of 1809.

Russo-Turkish Campaign of 1810.

The Russo-Turkish campaign of 1810 was more decisive than the previous campaigns in that quarter during that war. The Russian cammander-in-chief was General Kamenskoi. His younger brother and General Markoff took Bazardjik, June 4, 1810. The Russian commander-in-chief and Count Langeron captured Silistria, June 11, 1810, thus opening the way to Shumla, where the Grand Vizier, Yussuf Pasha, occupied a strong position. A Russian force under General Sabanieff defeated a Turkish detachment near Rasgrad, June 14, 1810, com-

pelling it to surrender. The Grand Vizier asked for an armistice; but, as the Russians demanded the cession of Moldavia and Wallachia and the payment of a war-indemnity of twenty million piasters, the negotiations failed, the Grand Vizier having rejected the Russian conditions at the British ambassador's instigation. The elder Kamenskoi was repulsed in an attack upon the Grand Vizier's intrenchments at Shumla, June 23, 1810, and was afterward repulsed in an assault on Rustchuk, while his brother was obliged to retreat from Kargali Dere, August 15, 1810. Forty thousand Turks under Mukhtar Pasha marched to the relief of Rustchuk, but were defeated in their intrenchments at Batine, September 7, 1810. Several days later the Russians under Count St. Priest took Sistova with the whole Turkish fleet. Rustchuk and Guirgevo surrendered to the Russians, September 27, 1810, and Nicopolis and Widin soon afterward; thus leaving the Russians in possession of the whole north bank of the Danube at the end of the campaign. The Servians and Russians captured the remaining fortresses of Servia from the Turks. Thus the campaign of 1810 ended very disastrously for the Ottoman arms.

Capture of Turkish Fortresses.

In the campaign of 1811 the Russians acted on the defensive against the Turks. The Russian General Kutusoff caused Silistria to be demolished. The Grand Vizier Yussuf Pasha was succeeded by Achmet Aga, who sent for a reinforcement of thirty-five thousand men, mainly cavalry, supported by a formidable artillery served by French officers. Achmet Aga marched against Kutusoff, and eight thousand Russians were driven back to their intrenchments, July 4, 1811. Two days later the new Grand Vizier attacked the Russian intrenchments and dislodged their troops, who threw themselves into Rustchuk. The Grand Vizier was repulsed in three assaults in one day upon the fortress of Rustchuk, July 9, 1811. The next day the Russians evacuated Rustchuk and crossed the Danube, but the Turks entered the town and prevented them from carrying off their artillery and ammunition. The Turks took possession of the islands in the Danube, where they constructed bridges, by means of which they made frequent incursions into Wallachia. Fifteen thousand Turks under Ismail Bey took post on the south side of the Danube, and the Grand Vizier crossed the river with the main body of the Turkish army, August 3, 1811. But when Kutusoff was reinforced by fifty thousand men under General Ouwaroff he sent a detachment under General Markoff, who crossed to the south side of the Danube, marched hastily against the Turkish reserve before Rustchuk, seized the Turkish camp and thus cut off the Grand Vizier's retreat. The Grand Vizier entered Rustchuk in a small bark, leaving his army in Wallachia under the command of Seraskier Tchaban-Oglou, who was blockaded at Slobosia by Kutu-

Russo-Turkish Campaign of 1811.

Turkish Victories at Rustchuk.

soff, and, after his army was reduced to twenty-five thousand men, was obliged to capitulate, December 8, 1811.

Peace of Bucharest.

In the meantime an armistice had been concluded between Russia and Turkey, and negotiations for peace had been opened at Bucharest, but for months the Ottoman Porte refused to make the slightest cession of territory. Finally the mediation of Great Britain overcame the Porte's obstinacy; and the Peace of Bucharest was signed May 28, 1812, by which Turkey ceded the province of Bessarabia and one-third of Moldavia, with the towns of Ismail and Kilia and the fortresses of Kotzim and Bender, to Russia, and granted an amnesty to the Servians.

Russo-Swedish War of 1807–1809.

As the British expedition against Copenhagen in September, 1807, caused the Emperor of Russia to declare war against Great Britain, November 7, 1807, that monarch entered very decidedly into the Continental System and demanded that the King of Sweden should enforce the principles of the Armed Neutrality of 1780 and 1800 by which the Baltic was declared a closed sea, in order to prevent British ships from entering. King Gustavus IV. replied that the principles of the Armed Neutrality had been abandoned by the treaty of June 17, 1801; that the surrender of the Danish fleet to Great Britain had changed circumstances, and that the British had effected an entrance into the Baltic through the Great Belt independently of the Sound. The Swedish king's refusal to comply with the demand of the Czar Alexander I. involved him in a ruinous war with Russia.

Russian Invasion of Swedish Finland.

A Russian army under General Buxhowden marched into Swedish Finland, February 21, 1808. General Buxhowden announced to the inhabitants that the Emperor Alexander I. had considered it necessary to occupy that country in order to have a pledge that the King of Sweden would accept the peace proposals which France had offered him. The Russians soon drove the few Swedish troops into East Bothnia. The Russian forces occupied Helsingfors; and Sweaborg, the bulwark of Finland, hitherto considered impregnable, also surrendered to them, April 6, 1808, after a siege of several days by Vice-Admiral Kronstadt. The Czar Alexander's manifesto had already declared the Grand Duchy of Finland to be annexed to the Russian Empire. The Russian invasion of Finland so incensed King Gustavus IV. of Sweden that he caused M. d'Alopeus, the Russian ambassador at Stockholm, to be arrested.

Sweden's War with Denmark in 1808.

The imbecile King Christian VII. of Denmark died March 13, 1808, and was succeeded by his son Frederick VI., who had been regent since 1784. As Denmark had also declared war against Sweden, February 29, 1808, a Swedish army of twenty thousand men under General Armfield attempted to conquer Norway, but was driven back with heavy loss, and the Danes even invaded Sweden.

Russo-Swedish Campaign of 1808.

A Swedish army under Field-Marshal Klinspor at Uleaborg began to act on the offensive in the North of Finland; while another Swedish army under General Vegesack landed at Abo, June 8, 1808. After a campaign of various success the Russians again held possession of Finland. A British force of ten thousand men under Sir John Moore arrived at Gottenburg to aid the Swedes, March 17, 1808; but King Gustavus IV. refused to permit these British auxiliaries to land, as he could not come to an agreement as to their employment nor even as to the command. The eccentric King of Sweden even ordered Sir John Moore, who had proceeded to Stockholm, to be arrested; but that British general escaped, and returned with his troops to England. Mr. Thornton, the British ambassador at Stockholm, who had remonstrated against the Swedish king's arbitrary action, was recalled.

King Gustavus IV. and His British Allies.

Russian, Swedish and British Fleets.

The Russian fleet under Admiral Chanikoff attempted to burn the Swedish fleet under Admiral Nauckhoff in Virgin Bay, August 18, 1808; but the Swedish fleet was reinforced at Baltic Port by the British squadrons under Sir James Saumarez and Admiral Hood, thus thwarting the Russian design by a very effective blockade of almost two months.

An Armistice.

An armistice was concluded between the Russian and Swedish commanders in Finland, in September, 1808; but the Emperor Alexander I. refused to ratify it. Another armistice was then concluded at Olkioki, November 19, 1808, by which the Swedish army was to evacuate Uleaborg and to retreat beyond the Kemi. Near the end of 1808 the British Ministry under Mr. Canning's direction advised the King of Sweden to make peace; but Gustavus IV. obstinately refused to do so, and even demanded additional subsidies from Great Britain for a vigorous prosecution of the war. As the British Cabinet refused to grant any subsidies unconditionally, the King of Sweden was on the point of an open rupture with Great Britain; but his indignation soon abated, and he concluded a new treaty with Great Britain at Stockholm, March 1, 1809, by which he received a British subsidy of three hundred thousand pounds sterling by quarterly installments.

The British Ministry and King Gustavus IV.

Threatened Invasion of Sweden.

The Kingdom of Sweden was now threatened with invasion on every side. The Russians were already approaching the Swedish capital, and the Danes and the Spanish troops under La Romana in Napoleon's service were on the Swedish frontiers. The Swedish army and military affairs were in the most wretched condition, and the heavy taxes could not be raised from the exhausted land; but still King Gustavus IV. obstinately rejected all proposals of peace. His severity in punishing his troops, not only when they had committed faults, but even when they were unsuccessful, had alienated the soldiers, especially the guards, from him.

Obstinacy of King Gustavus IV.

Dethronement of Gustavus IV.

Accordingly a conspiracy was formed in the Swedish army and in the Swedish capital, under the leadership of Lieutenant-Colonel Adlersparre and Colonel Skioldebrand. Adlersparre and the Swedish army of the West marched against Stockholm; and they had arrived at Orebro when Field-Marshal Klinspor, who had been disgraced, advised King Gustavus IV. to change his conduct. As the obstinate king refused to do so, General Adlercreutz arrested him in his palace in the name of the Swedish people, March 13, 1809; and the king's uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, was proclaimed regent. Gustavus IV. was conveyed to Drottingholm, and thence to Gripsholm, where he formally abdicated the Swedish throne by signing a deed to that effect. The regent immediately convened the Swedish Diet, which offered him the crown of Sweden. The regent declared his willingness to accept the crown when the Diet had revised the Swedish constitution. The Diet accordingly revised the constitution by greatly restricting the royal power, declared Gustavus IV. and all his posterity to have forfeited the Swedish crown, and proclaimed the Duke of Sudermania King of Sweden with the title of CHARLES XIII., June 5, 1809.

Charles XIII of Sweden, A. D. 1809–1818.

The Swedish Succession.

As the new king was childless, the Swedish Diet elected Prince Christian Augustus of Holstein-Augustenburg, the commander of the Danish army in Norway, who had secured the esteem of the Swedes, as the successor of Charles XIII. on the Swedish throne. The dethroned Gustavus IV. and his family were permitted to leave Sweden; and near the end of the year a new fundamental law was published, regulating the order of succession to the Swedish crown.

Russian Invasion of Sweden.

In the meantime, while the revolution just related was in progress in Sweden, a Russian army of twenty-five thousand men under General Knorring had crossed the Gulf of Bothnia on the ice to the Aland Islands, and took possession of those islands, March 17, 1809; the Swedish troops which had been stationed there retiring to the mainland of Sweden. General Knorring granted an armistice to the Swedes to give them time to make overtures of peace. Upon hearing of this armistice, Count Barclay de Tolly, who had crossed the Gulf of Bothnia on the side of Vasa with another Russian army and occupied Umea, evacuated West Bothnia and returned to Finland. A third Russian army under Schouvaloff invaded West Bothnia by way of Tornea, and forced the Swedish army under Gripenborg to surrender at Seiwis, March 25, 1809. This event occurred through ignorance, as the news of the armistice granted by General Knorring had not yet reached that remote northern latitude.

An Armistice.

Peace of Frederiksham.

The war between Russia and Sweden was ended by the Peace of Frederiksham, September 17, 1809, by which Sweden ceded Finland, East Bothnia and part of West Bothnia to Russia and joined in the

Continental System, but reserved to herself the importation of salt and of such colonial produce as was an absolute necessity. The ceded territory had formed the granary of Sweden and contained a population of nine hundred thousand, and was therefore an irreparable loss to Sweden, which had less than two million four hundred thousand inhabitants left. Sweden concluded the Peace of Jonkoping with Denmark, December 10, 1809, and the Peace of Paris with France, January 6, 1810. By this last treaty Sweden renounced the importation of colonial produce, reserving to herself only the privilege of importing salt as an absolute necessity; as it was on that condition only that she could recover Pomerania, which the French had conquered during the war.

Peace of Jonkoping and of Paris.

SECTION IX.—NAPOLEON AND THE PENINSULAR WAR (A. D. 1808–1814).

Intoxicated by his successes and impelled by his overmastering ambition, Napoleon aimed at uniting all Western and Southern Europe into one vast empire under the supremacy of France, in imitation of Charlemagne, who had done the same thing a thousand years before and whom the great French Emperor adopted as his model. He was already master of Germany and Italy through his annihilation of the power of Austria and Prussia, and he now sought to bring the Spanish peninsula also under his sway, as well as the still-unconquered provinces of Italy. To further his designs upon Spain and Portugal, he negotiated with the weak and dissolute Bourbon court of Spain, through the infamous Don Manuel Godoy, the "Prince of Peace," the unprincipled and ignorant favorite of Spain's weak Bourbon monarch, King Charles IV., and his wicked queen. The wretched condition of Spain under her weak royal family and their unscrupulous and ignorant favorite, Godoy, who, as Prime Minister, had become virtually the real ruler of the kingdom, had made that monarchy contemptible in the eyes of all nations.

Napoleon's Designs on Spain and Portugal.

As a preliminary step in his designs upon the Spanish peninsula, Napoleon now determined to deprive Great Britain of her commerce with Portugal; and, for the accomplishment of this object, he negotiated with the weak and dissolute Bourbon court of Spain, through Godoy, whom he bought over to his project by promising him a principality in Portugal, as his reward for his aid in the unprincipled scheme of the French Emperor. When the Prince-Regent of Portugal refused to renounce his alliance with Great Britain and close the Portuguese ports against British vessels, Napoleon published a decree declar-

His Seizure of Portugal.

Flight of the Portuguese Royal Family.

ing that "the House of Braganza has ceased to reign"; and a French army under Junot was sent to take possession of Portugal. The cowardly royal family of Portugal, instead of offering any resistance to the invaders of their dominions, fled in British vessels to Rio Janeiro, the capital of the Portuguese colony of Brazil, in South America. On the 30th of November, 1807, three days after the Portuguese court had left the shores of their European dominions, the French army occupied Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, without resistance.

Napoleon's Seizure of Spain.

Having Portugal under his sway, Napoleon next proceeded to make himself master of Spain also, which object he accomplished through Godoy, who practically delivered his country into the French Emporer's hands, and Spanish troops under La Romana entered Napoleon's service and fought on the islands of Denmark against the Swedes, while French soldiers in large numbers were occupying Spain, February, 1808.

Overthrow of Godoy and Charles IV. of Spain.

Godoy, as well as King Charles IV. and his queen, was exceedingly unpopular with the Spanish people; and his abject subserviency to the French Emperor and his design to remove the Spanish royal family to the Spanish colonies in South America caused intense commotions among the Spanish people, and violent insurrections broke out in Aranjuez and in Madrid, in which the mob plundered and destroyed Godoy's palace and deprived him of political power, at the same time threatening the detested royal favorite with death, March, 1808. Intimidated by this menacing attitude of the Spanish populace, the imbecile King Charles IV. abdicated the throne of Spain in favor of his eldest son, Ferdinand, Prince of Asturias, who, as Godoy's enemy, was intensely hated by his parents, but dearly loved by the Spanish people, who immediately hailed him as King FERDINAND VII. The deposed Charles IV. declared that his abdication was an involuntary act and invoked the French Emperor's aid in his behalf. To gain Napoleon's consent to his elevation to the Spanish throne, Ferdinand VII. affected the utmost sycophancy and sought a queen from the Bonaparte family.

Intrigues of Bayonne and Deposition of the Bourbons in Spain.

Napoleon sent his brother-in-law, Marshal Joachim Murat, to take military possession of Madrid. On May 2, 1808, a frightful insurrection in Madrid against the French cost the lives of twelve hundred of Murat's soldiers. Murat quelled the insurrection, and disgraced his name by a bloody massacre of the insurgents. By a series of intrigues, Napoleon induced father and son, Charles IV. and Ferdinand VII., to refer their disputes to his decision, and enticed them, along with Godoy and the queen, to Bayonne. Ferdinand did not dare to resist Napoleon's summons, although warned by his friends and though the Spanish people endeavored to prevail upon him not to undertake the hazardous journey. When he once had the Bourbon royal family of Spain in his

power at Bayonne, Napoleon entangled them in the intrigues of an insidious state policy, inducing Charles IV. to recall his abdication and to transfer his resumed crown to the Bonaparte family. Incapable of a vigorous resolution, Ferdinand VII. was terrified by the French Emperor's threats and induced by his intrigues to acquiesce in this arbitrary proceeding; and Napoleon decreed that the dynasty of the Bourbons should no longer reign in Spain. Thenceforth Ferdinand VII. resided as a virtual prisoner at Valençay, in France, supported by an annuity from Napoleon; while Charles IV. and his family made their residence in Rome.

Joseph Bonaparte as King of Spain.

After wresting the throne of Spain from the Bourbon dynasty, Napoleon named his brother, JOSEPH BONAPARTE, as King of Spain, June 6, 1808; Joseph relinquishing the Kingdom of Naples, the crown of which Napoleon then conferred upon Mashal JOACHIM MURAT, who had married Napoleon's sister. Napoleon endeavored to win the support of the Spanish people to his brother's rule by restoring their Cortes Constitution and by improving the character and methods of government and the administration of justice; and he succeeded in gaining the favor of the few educated and enlightened Spaniards, who were enamored of the new political system because it afforded them a life of political freedom instead of the kingly absolutism and the priestly rule of the past; and these Bonapartist supporters were nicknamed "Josephinos," being looked upon by the great mass of the Spanish people as traitors to their country, and, in consequence, being subjected to a rigorous persecution by the great mass of their fanatical countrymen.

Spanish Resistance and Guerrilla Warfare.

The great mass of the Spanish people arose almost unanimously against Napoleon's usurpation and resolved that none but their legitimate sovereign should reign over them. Even before Joseph Bonaparte's solemn entry into Madrid, Provisional Juntas were formed in many of the chief cities of Spain for the purpose of conducting public affairs; armies were raised for the defense of the country, and a fierce guerrilla war was commenced against the French invaders. Armed guerrilla bands under daring leaders harassed the French troops, being favored in their method of warfare by the ravines and the rugged mountain heights of their country. Although Joseph Bonaparte was able to maintain his government in Madrid by the support of French bayonets, his power prevailed only where the French armies held sway, while the great mass of the Spanish people and the more remote towns followed their Juntas, which acknowledged the central power of the Grand National Junta at Seville, and where they were not in communication with the Seville Grand Junta they acted of their own volition, so that Spain was practically in a state of anarchy. Europe

viewed with astonishment the valiant and patriotic resistance of the Spanish masses, who faced death for their legitimate king and their priests, for their nationality and independence, for their ancient manners and religious usages, for their superstitions and customary arrangements. The guerrilla leaders and their followers avoided open battles, resorting effectively and wholly to unexpected attacks, surprises, petty warfare. While the French were wasting their strength in single encounters and in sieges of well-fortified towns, the British, as allies of the Spaniards, began the first successful war on land against Napoleon.

Spanish Successes.

Though the French at first seemed to be masters of Spain, and Marshal Bessières routed the undisciplined Spanish troops at Rio Secco, July 14, 1808, the Spanish patriots won a series of brilliant successes in the early part of their struggle with their French invaders. A French fleet at Cadiz, blockaded by a British fleet, was compelled to surrender. Marshal Moncey, with eight thousand French troops, was repulsed in an assault upon Valencia. Saragossa was bravely defended by a Spanish force under the gallant Palafox. Finally, on the 20th of July, 1808, the French general Dupont and twenty thousand men were compelled to lay down their arms at Baylen, to the Spaniards under the brave Castanos. Joseph Bonaparte, who had entered Madrid on that very day, was soon obliged to flee; and the French were driven across the Ebro, into the north-eastern part of the Spanish peninsula.

Dupont's Capitulation of Baylen.

Wellesley's Victories in Portugal.

The Portuguese people also rose in insurrection against the French invaders of their country, and a Provisional Junta was established at Oporto. A British army, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, which had been sent to assist the Portuguese, defeated the French army under Junot at Rolica, August 19, 1808, and at Vimiera, August 21, 1808. On the following day (August 22, 1808) the Convention of Cintra was concluded between Junot and the British general Dalrymple, by which the French agreed to evacuate Portugal on condition of being conveyed to France in British vessels.

Convention of Cintra.

Napoleon in Spain.

The many reserves of the French arms in the Spanish peninsula induced Napoleon to cross the Pyrenees at the head of one hundred and eighty thousand men, in the early part of November, 1808, to recover what had been lost. The Spanish patriots now suffered several disasters. At Espinosa the French under Marshal Victor defeated the Spaniards under Blake; at Burgos, Marshal Soult with French troops overthrew the Spanish Count de Belvedere; and at Tudela, Marshal Lannes with another French force beat the Spaniards under Palafox and Castanos. On the 4th of December, 1808, Napoleon entered Madrid in triumph, and King Joseph Bonaparte was able to resume his crown. While Napoleon was making fresh arrangements in the

French Victories.

Spanish capital, seeking by kindness and threats to induce the Spaniards to accept his brother as their king, and severely punishing the most refractory, his marshals had bloody conflicts with the Spanish guerrilla bands and the British.

Battle of Corunna and Victory, Death and Burial of Sir John Moore.

The year 1809 was a memorable one in the Spanish peninsula. A British army under Sir John Moore, which was marching to the aid of the Spaniards, was compelled to make a hasty retreat to Corunna, on the north-western coast of Spain, where, while preparing to embark, it was attacked, on the 16th of January, 1809, by the French under Marshal Soult. The French were repulsed and compelled to retreat, but the gallant Sir John Moore fell mortally wounded by a cannon-ball from the enemy while animating his troops. He soon expired, and was buried by torchlight on the ramparts of Corunna. The next day the British abandoned the shores of Spain, and Napoleon seemed master of that country.

Alison's Description.

Concerning the burial of Sir John Moore, the English historian Sir Archibald Alison says: "Wrapped by his attendants in his military cloak, he was laid in a grave hastily formed on the ramparts of Corunna, where a monument was soon after constructed over his uncoffined remains by the generosity of the French Marshal Ney. Not a word was spoken as the melancholy interment by torchlight took place. Silently they laid him in his grave, while the distant cannon of the battle fired the funeral honors to his memory."

Wolfe's Poem.

This touching scene has been vividly described by the young Rev. Charles Wolfe, an Episcopal clergyman and poet of Ireland, in a beautiful poem which Byron is said to have pronounced the most perfect in the English language and which is as follows:

"Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corpse to the rampart we hurried;
Not a soldier discharged his farwell shot
O'er the grave where our hero we buried.

"We buried him darkly at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning;
By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.

"No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Not in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest
With his martial cloak around him.

"Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spoke not a word of sorrow,
But we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

"We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed,
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
That the foe and the stranger would tread o'er his head,
And we far away on the billow!

"Lightly they'll talk of the spirit that's gone,
And o'er his cold ashes upbraid him;
But little he'll reck, if they let him sleep on
In the grave where a Briton has laid him.

"But half of our heavy task was done
When the clock struck the hour for retiring;
And we heard the distant and random gun
That the foe was sullenly firing.

"Slowly and sadly we laid him down,
From the field of his fame fresh and gory;
We carved not a line, and we raised not a stone,
But we left him alone with his glory."

Heroic Defense and Fall of Saragossa.

On the 20th of February, 1809, the city of Saragossa, almost reduced to a heap of ruins, fell into the hands of the French; and Palafox, the heroic commander of the Spanish force which had garrisoned the city, was conveyed a prisoner to France. This defense was as gallant as that of the ancient Numantians against the Romans. Monks and even women had taken part in the defense, and forty thousand dead bodies lay in the streets when the French entered the city.

French Victories.

The French marshals were everywhere triumphant over the Spaniards during the campaign of 1809. Sebastiani triumphed at Ciudad Real. Marshal Victor defeated Cuesta at Medelin, March 28, 1809. Marshal Suchet defeated General Blake at Belchite, June 16, 1809.

Sir Arthur Wellesley's Second Expulsion of the French from Portugal.

In April, 1809, the French army under Marshal Soult invaded Portugal and occupied Oporto, where he defeated the Portuguese, who left twenty thousand dead upon the field. In the meantime the British army at Lisbon was strongly reinforced, and Sir Arthur Wellesley was assigned the chief command of the British forces in the Spanish peninsula. After driving the French out of Portugal and entering Spain, he was reinforced by a Spanish detachment under General Cuesta.

Battle of Talavera.

King Joseph Bonaparte collected all the French troops that he could and joined Marshal Victor's army, which was seeking to stay the advance of the British army. In the great and decisive battle of Talavera, July 28, 1809, Sir Arthur Wellesley gained a glorious victory over Marshals Jourdan and Victor and Joseph Bonaparte; the triumphant British losing five thousand men and the vanquished French seven thousand.

Immediately after his great victory at Talavera, Sir Arthur Wellesley received intelligence that the French forces under Marshals Soult, Ney and Mortier were marching against him; whereupon, pursuing his

cautious policy, he promptly fell back to the frontier of Portugal, without being pursued by the French. The French obtained possession of Seville and of all Andalusia and Granada; but Cadiz, the seat of the Grand National Junta, was successfully defended against every attack. The French under Marshal Mortier defeated the Spaniards under Cuesta at Ocana, November 19, 1809.

Wellesley's Retreat and French Victories.

Sir Arthur Wellesley's retreat to Portugal left the Spaniards alone to oppose the French; and the Spanish guerrilla parties constantly harassed the French troops, destroying their convoys and magazines and surprising them in their intrenchments. By this guerrilla warfare the Spaniards did infinite damage to the French invaders. The Spanish general La Romana, who had been serving under Napoleon on the Baltic shores and who had returned home from Denmark in English ships when he heard of his country's rise, brought system and order to the guerrilla warfare. When Napoleon's war with Austria in 1809 called him from Spain he left behind him in that country a large army, consisting mainly of Germans. At the end of his Austrian war he increased his army in Spain to three hundred thousand men; and Marshals Ney, Soult, Suchet, Massena, Marmont, Macdonald, Victor, Jourdon, Sebastiani, St. Cyr and others carried the renown of the French arms to every part of the Spanish peninsula. The French victories only increased the hatred of the Spaniards; and the guerrilla war gradually assumed a more sanguinary character under such daring leaders as Ballasteros, Empecindo, Morillo, O'Donnell, Mina, Moreto and others. No courage could avail against the assassinations to which the Spaniards were driven by rage and fanaticism. The most heroic deeds of Napoleon's warriors in Spain, on battlefields, in sieges, such as Valencia and Gerona, in toilsome marches over mountains and through ravines, did nothing toward the pacification of the country.

Spanish Guerrilla Warfare.

General Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had been created Earl of Wellington as a reward for his great victory at Talavera the previous year, was in chief command of the British, Spanish and Portuguese armies. Granada, Malaga and Seville were occupied by the French; but Cadiz, then the seat of the Grand National Junta, was secured against every attack. The Spaniards were compelled to surrender the strong fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, in the extreme West of Spain, to the French army under Marshal Massena, Prince of Essling, July 10, 1810; but when Massena marched on Lisbon he was beaten by the British and Portuguese forces under Lord Wellington at Basaco, September 27, 1810. Wellington, acting on the defensive, then retreated to the strongly-fortified lines of Torres Vedras, which covered Lisbon, December, 1810. Massena, after wasting some time in useless assaults upon those impregnable lines, was at length obliged to retrace his steps.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, Earl of Wellington.

Fall of Ciudad Rodrigo.

Battle of Busaco.

Wellington's Retreat to Torres Vedras.

French Retreat.

The Peninsular War was prosecuted with vigor on both sides throughout the year 1811, and the French forces were greatly harassed by the Spanish guerrilla parties. After a month's inaction, the French army under Marshal Massena fell back into Spain, closely pursued by Lord Wellington; but the French marshal conducted his retreat with such signal ability that the British general could gain no decided advantage over him.

Sieges of Almeida and Badajoz.

The main British and Portuguese army under Lord Wellington laid siege to Almeida, while a British detachment under Marshal Beresford beseiged Badajoz. Massena advanced to the relief of Almeida, but was defeated with the loss of three thousand men by Marshal Beresford at Fuentos d'Onoro, May 5, 1811. Massena retreated to Salamanca, where he was soon relieved of his command by Marshal Marmont, Duke of Ragusa.

Battles of Fuentos d'Onoro, Albuera and Barossa.

The French army under Marshal Soult, Duke of Dalmatia, now advanced from Seville to the relief of Badajoz, but was repulsed in an attack on the allied British, Spanish and Portuguese army under Marshal Beresford at Albuera, May 16, 1811, the French losing eight thousand men and the allies seven thousand. Upon the advance of a strong reinforcement from Salamanca for Soult's army, Beresford retreated into Portugal. In the Southwest of Spain the British under General Graham defeated the French at Barossa.

French Successes.

The French under Marshal Suchet took Tortosa, January 1, 1811; Tarragona, June 28, 1811; Monteserrat, August 19, 1811. Suchet gained a victory over General Blake at Murviedro, the ancient Saguntum, October 25, 1811.

Spanish Constitution of 1812.

In the meantime the Spanish Cortes in Cadiz framed the liberal and almost-republican Constitution of 1812, which was designed to abolish absolute monarchy and the power of the Roman Catholic priesthood in Spain forever. But, in consequence of its exceeding unpopularity, this Spanish constitution was never put in force.

Fall of Valencia.

The events of the Peninsular War during 1812 were generally unfavorable to the French arms. The last important French victory in the Spanish peninsula was the capture of the city of Valencia, which surrendered to Marshal Suchet, January 9, 1812.

Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz.

Lord Wellington recaptured Ciudad Rodrigo, January 19, 1812, and also took Badajoz by storm, April 6, 1812. Wellington then advanced into the interior of Spain, and gained a glorious victory over the French army under

Battle of Salamanca.

Marshal Marmont at Salamanca, July 22, 1812, the French losing eight thousand killed and wounded and seven thousand prisoners. The victorious British general then marched on Madrid, whereupon King Joseph Bonaparte fled from that city, and the next day the capital of Spain was in the possession of the British army. Wellington then marched into the North of Spain and besieged Burgos; but the concentration of the French forces in the Spanish peninsula caused him

to raise the siege, October 21, 1812, and to retreat to Ciudad Rodrigo, pursued by a French army of eighty thousand men under Marshal Soult, who was unable to profit by his superior numbers. Upon reaching Ciudad Rodrigo, Lord Wellington went into winter-quarters. King Joseph Bonaparte returned to Madrid, but his authority ceased south of his capital, Seville and Valladolid having been recovered by the British.

Wellington's Retreat.

Late in May, 1813, Lord Wellington marched from Ciudad Rodrigo into the north-eastern part of Spain; and he annihilated the French forces under Marshal Jourdan and King Joseph Bonaparte in the decisive battle of Vittoria, June 21, 1813, the French losing ten thousand men and one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon. The result of this great British victory was that the French were compelled to evacuate the entire Spanish peninsula and to retire into their own territory before the close of the year; and early in July, 1813, Wellington was master of the entire Spanish side of the Pyrenees. Marshal Soult was again sent to oppose the renowned British general, but was driven back after almost a week's fighting in the passes of the Pyrenees, *the Battles of the Pyrenees,* and was thus forced to retreat into France. Wellington took San Sebastian by storm, August 31, 1813, and Pampeluna by siege soon afterward; after which he pursued the retreating French across the Pyrenees into their own territory. He entered France on the 7th of October, 1813, and on the 10th of November he defeated Marshal Soult on the Nivelle. Bayonne was invested by an Anglo-Portuguese force under Marshal Beresford.

Battle of Vittoria.

Its Reults.

Capture of Pampeluna and San Sebastian.

French Driven from Spain.

SECTION X.—NAPOLEON'S AUSTRIAN WAR OF 1809 AND RESULTS.

Austria had always been restive under the humiliating conditions of the Peace of Pressburg, and her anxiety was awakened by Napoleon's arbitrary proceedings in Italy and by his increasing influence in Germany. She had been silently mustering her forces in the meantime until their numbers were more than double those of Napoleon. Finally the Emperor Francis, subsidized by British gold to the amount of four million pounds sterling and encouraged by the military ardor of his subjects, once more resolved to risk the hazards of war with Napoleon.

Napoleon's New War with Austria.

The moment seemed favorable when the Emperor of the French was obliged to employ a considerable portion of his forces in Spain to support his brother's precarious throne; when the restrictions upon European commerce were producing universal discontent, and when the deep movement in Northern Germany menaced Napoleon's power in the

Austria's Favorable Circumstances.

Fatherland. All these circumstances seemed auspicious for Austria to regain the power which she had lost and to break to pieces the foreign despotism.

Her Failure to Unite Germany against Napoleon.

The Cabinet of Vienna called out the landstrum, and, by means of vehement proclamations full of promises, sought to arouse enthusiasm and popular feeling in Germany; but the magic of the French Emperor's name was too powerful. The princes of the Confederation of the Rhine reinforced the French army with their brave troops, and the soldiers of South Germany shed their own blood for a foreign despot against their own kinsmen.

Armies in Bavaria and Italy.

At the beginning of April, 1809, large bodies of Austrian troops marched into Bavaria and Italy and threatened to overwhelm the scattered detachments of Napoleon's army. But the Emperor Francis little appreciated Napoleon's power of swift and decisive action. Upon receiving news at Paris, April 13, 1809, of the invasion of Bavaria by the Archduke Charles, Napoleon hastened to Stuttgart and Carlsruhe, organized the forces of Würtemberg and Baden, and fixed his headquarters at Ingolstadt, April 18, 1809.

Battles of Abensberg, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon.

Marching down the Danube with a considerable force, in five days of severe fighting at Abensberg, Eckmühl and Ratisbon, April 18–22, 1809, Napoleon totally annihilated the Austrian army under the Archduke Charles, driving the shattered Austrian columns across the Inn and compelling them to retreat toward Bohemia, thus leaving the road open for another invasion of Austria. Napoleon then pursued the Austrian army under General Hiller, whom he defeated at Ebersberg, May 3, 1809, compelling him to fall back to Krems, on the north bank of the Danube, thus leaving the Austrian capital to the conqueror's mercy.

Occupation of Vienna and the Danube.

Napoleon entered Vienna a second time, May 13, 1809. The Archduke Charles defended the north bank of the Danube east of Vienna, where the river is crossed by a number of bridges. The Archduke Charles took up a strong position on the Marchfeld, where the fortunes of Austria and Germany had been decided between Rudolph of Hapsburg and King Ottocar of Bohemia more than five centuries before.

Battles of Ebersdorf, Aspern and Essling.

When Napoleon attempted to cross the Danube from Lobau, an island in the river, he was repulsed after two days' fighting at Ebersdorf, Aspern and Essling, May 21 and 22, 1809, and was obliged to retreat. During those two terrible days the French left twelve thousand men dead upon the field, while eighteen thousand were wounded and taken prisoners. Among the mortally wounded was the brave Marshal Lannes, who had both legs shot off. Lannes was greatly beloved by Napoleon, who manifested the most intense emotion at his afflicting death. This bloody repulse gave the first shock to the belief in Na-

THE RISING IN THE TYROL

From the Painting by F. Defregger

poleon's invincibility and increased the confidence of the oppressed nations.

Austrians Driven from Italy by Eugene Beauharnais.

In the meantime the Austrian army in Italy under the Archduke John had defeated the French army under the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais, Napoleon's stepson; but when the Archduke John was informed of the defeat of the Archduke Charles at Abensberg, Eckmühl and Ratisbon he retreated, and was defeated near the Piave, May 8, 1809; after which he retreated into the Austrian territories, pursued by Eugene Beauharnais, who captured Gortz and Laybach. The Archduke John continued his retreat into Hungary, pursued by Eugene Beauharnais, who again defeated him near Raab, June 14, 1809, the anniversary of Napoleon's victories of Marengo and Friedland.

Battles of Enzersdorf, Wagram and Znaym.

When Napoleon received reinforcements and was joined by the victorious army of Eugene Beauharnais he made a second and more successful effort to cross the Danube; and, after an indecisive battle at Enzersdorf, July 5, 1809, he gained a great victory over the Archduke Charles at Wagram, where twelve hundred cannon swept the ranks of the hostile armies—a victory which placed the Austrian Empire at Napoleon's mercy. The Archduke Charles fled into Moravia with his shattered army, and was again defeated at Znaym, July 11, 1809.

Peace of Schoenbrunn.

The next day, July 12, 1809, an armistice was concluded, and negotiations for peace followed. By the Peace of Schönbrunn, near Vienna, October 14, 1809, Austria was again obliged to relinquish territory containing three million inhabitants; the territories at the head of the Adriatic, under the name of the *Illyrian Provinces,* being ceded to the French Empire; while most of Austrian Poland was divided between the Czar of Russia and the King of Saxony; and Salzburg with its territories was surrendered to Bavaria. The Emperor Francis also renounced his alliance with Great Britain and engaged to join in the Continental System for the destruction of British commerce.

Tyrolese Revolt against Bavaria.

At the beginning of the war between France and Austria just described, the brave inhabitants of the mountainous country of the Tyrol rose in insurrection against the King of Bavaria, under whose dominion their country had been placed by the Peace of Pressburg, in 1805. The insurrection was produced by the enticements and promises of Austria and by the stimulating exhortations of the priests, who possessed the greatest influence over the Tyrolese mountaineers.

Tyrolese Guerillas.

Relying on the aid of Austria, the Tyrolese seized the familiar rifle, and, like the Spaniards, directed from the mountain heights and gullies the unerring weapon against the French and the Bavarians, hazarding life and property in defense of the customs of their fathers. Their heroic leader was Andreas Hofer, a publican in the Passeyrthal, a man of great prominence and influence among his countrymen on account of

Andreas Hofer.

his strength and courage, as well as of his piety, his patriotism and his honorable character. Shrewder and more far-sighted men than Hofer made use of his influence with the people to spread the revolt throughout the whole of the Tyrol. By Hofer's side was Speckbacher, the soul of the revolt.

Subjugation of the Tyrolese.

A frightful war broke out. The Bavarians were driven from the German Tyrol, except the fortress of Kufstein, on their own border, which was besieged by the Tyrolese; and Hofer took possession of Innsbruck in the name of Austria. The Truce of Znaym between France and Austria produced discouragement and irresolution among the Tyrolese insurgents, but did not end the revolt. The Peace of Schönbrunn deprived the Tyrolese of all hopes of assistance from Austria; and the French and the Bavarians, with increased forces, invaded the Tyrol from various directions. Marshal Lefevre gained a victory at Mörgel and captured Schwatz and Innsbruck. Speckbacher and other Tyrolese leaders fled for their lives; but Hofer, who was instigated to take up arms a second time, was discovered in a cave where he had hidden himself with his family for two months, and was taken to Italy,

Execution of Hofer.

tried by court-martial and shot at Mantua, February 18, 1810. He died like a hero and was highly reverenced by his countrymen. The Tyrol was divided into three portions.

Enterprises of Von Dorenberg and Von Schill in Germany.

During Napoleon's war with Austria just closed, attempts were made in different parts of Germany to cast off the French yoke. In Kurhessen, Colonel Von Dörenberg attempted to overthrow King Jerome Bonaparte of Westphalia by an insurrection; but his failure did not deter the brave Major Von Schill from risking a similar enterprise in Prussia. With a troop of daring volunteers, he hoped to arouse the North of Germany against the foreign despotism. The people were, however, paralyzed by fear of the French Emperor. Upon being pursued, Schill threw himself into the strongly-fortified town of Stralsund, hoping to be able to escape thence by sea to England; but was killed during an assault on the town, with most of his followers, by the French cavalry. The remainder were made prisoners of war. The captured officers were shot at Wesel and Brunswick, and the privates were condemned to the French galleys.

Enterprise of Duke William of Brunswick.

Duke William of Brunswick—the heroic son of old Duke Ferdinand, the veteran Prussian field-marshal—was more fortunate. He had marched to the aid of Austria with his "black band"; but he treated the Truce of Znaym with contempt, because in it he had been regarded only as an Austrian marshal and not as an independent prince of the Empire. He fought his way bravely through hostile bands and armies to the North Sea, and thence escaped with his followers to England. The intense exasperation of men's minds was evinced by the at-

tempt of a young man of Hamburg named Staps to assassinate Napoleon. He was seized by General Rapp and confessed his intention, whereupon he was punished with death. Napoleon asked him: "What injury have I done to you?" Staps replied: "None to me personally, but you are the oppressor of my country."

Attempt of Staps to Assassinate Napoleon.

The foolhardy enterprises of Schill and Dörenberg were an evidence of the sentiments prevalent among the German people and of the newly-aroused patriotism. These sentiments were fostered and encouraged mainly in Prussia, where patriotically-disposed men had assumed the direction of public affairs after the disastrous days of Jena and Tilsit, driving the characterless old Prussian party from the councils of King Frederick William III.

Newly-aroused German Patriotism.

Among the great Prussian statesmen of the time was the Baron Von Stein, who attempted to elevate the citizen and peasant class by introducing a liberal municipal government, rendering the possession of land attainable by all and restricting the class privileges of the Middle Ages. Scharnhorst, the new Minister of War, completely reorganized and revolutionized the Prussian army, superseding the employment of mercenary troops by the universal requirement to bear arms, thus making every able-bodied Prussian a soldier, while the feelings of honor were aroused among the privates by making the rank of military officer attainable by all and by abolishing degrading punishments.

Baron Von Stein and Scharnhorst in Prussia.

Although King Frederick William III. was soon obliged to dismiss his patriotic Ministers when Napoleon's mandate outlawed the Baron Von Stein and forced him to seek refuge in Russia, the works of these statesmen remained, and constituted the groundwork of a system of government which was based upon the equality of all Prussian subjects before the law. Stein's successor, the astute Chancellor Von Hardenberg, carried out the same policy; and the Tugendbund, which was joined by some of the noblest men in the kingdom, aroused and encouraged patriotism and love of freedom among the people and ardent youth of Prussia.

Their Works.

Von Hardenberg and the Tugendbund.

In his pride and glory Napoleon refused to recognize any bonds that could limit his ambition. The priests were the instigators of the hatred and fanatical fury of the Spaniards toward the French, but Napoleon refused to learn from this circumstance what power the religion which he rejected and its venerable usages exercised over the minds of men. Napoleon's arbitrary and imperious disposition was clearly shown in his treatment toward Pope Pius VII., with whom a quarrel had arisen in the meantime.

Napoleon's Imperious Disposition.

When the Pope refused to lay an embargo on British vessels in the ports of the States of the Church and to form an offensive and defensive alliance with France, Napoleon inflicted a succession of injuries

His Quarrel with Pope Pius VII.

upon His Holiness and annexed a part of the Pope's dominions to the French Empire. This did not, however, subdue the resolution of the inflexible Pius VII., but caused him to side with Austria during her war with Napoleon in 1809. Thereupon Napoleon issued a decree at Schönbrunn, May 27, 1809, declaring the Pope's temporal power at an end, only allowing the Head of the Church a liberal endowment and the possession of the Vatican, where he might reign as the spiritual head of Christendom without distraction by worldly interests. His Holiness, intensely exasperated, then fulminated an excommunication against the French Emperor, June 16, 1809, and shut himself up in the Quirinal with his Swiss guards; whereupon his palace was surrounded at midnight by French troops, July 6, 1809, and he was conveyed a prisoner to France, while his cardinals were banished from Rome; and the States of the Church were annexed to the French Empire, of which Rome was declared to be the second city.

The Pope Made a Prisoner.

His Captivity in France.

Pius VII. remained a prisoner in France until the beginning of 1814, residing first at Grenoble and finally at Fontainebleau. As he obstinately refused to fill the vacant bishoprics or to arrange any ecclesiastical affairs while he was in captivity and deprived of his council of cardinals, Napoleon again had recourse to arbitrary and despotic measures. But, at length, in an unguarded moment, the Pope suffered himself to be persuaded to an arrangement curtailing his authority.

British Naval Successes in 1809.

The year 1809 was disastrous for the French at sea. The captain of a British vessel, and Marques, a Portuguese colonel, took possession of the island of Cayenne and French Guiana, in South America, January 12, 1809. A British expedition under Rear-Admiral Cochrane and Lieutenant-General Beckwith took Martinique by capitulation, February 12, 1809. A British fleet under Lords Gambier and Cochrane destroyed a French fleet under Vice-Admirals Villaumez and L'Allemand in Aix Roads, on the south-eastern coast of France, by means of Congreve rockets, April 11, 1809. The British took the French fort on the Senegal, in Western Africa, in June, 1809. A Spanish force from the island of Porto Rico, under the British General Carmichael, drove the French from San Domingo, July 7, 1809. A British fleet under Lord Collingwood destroyed a French squadron in the Bay of Rosas, on the north-eastern coast of Spain. A British land and naval armament under Lord Collingwood and General Oswald took possession of the Ionian Isles, October 8, 1809. A British fleet under Sir James Saumarez captured a Russian convoy in the Baltic.

Unsuccessful British Expedition to Holland.

The most important British expedition in 1809 was that to the coast of Holland to create a diversion in favor of Austria during her war with Napoleon in that year. This expedition consisted of a fleet under Sir Richard Strachan, carrying forty thousand land troops commanded

NAPOLEON'S FAREWELL TO JOSEPHINE

"My Destiny and France Demand It"

From the Painting by L. J. Pott

by the Earl of Chatham, the elder brother of the second William Pitt. This expedition was sent to the province of Zealand, in Holland, for the purpose of destroying the shipping, dockyards and arsenals at Antwerp and Flushing and occupying the island of Walcheren. The expedition landed on that island July 30, 1809, and took the fortress of Flushing after a siege of fifteen days. But the unhealthiness of the climate forced the British to evacuate these acquisitions after the loss of about twenty thousand lives; and the Earl of Chatham found it impossible to carry out the objects of the expedition, the destruction of the French fleet in the Scheldt and the occupation of Antwerp, because of the activity of Marshal Bernadotte, who had formed a French army of thirty-five thousand men there. The entire expedition was badly conducted, as it had not arrived on the island of Walcheren until Austria had been irretrievably ruined at Wagram; and near the close of the year, after a four months' occupation of the island of Walcheren and after destroying the fortress of Flushing, which the British were unable to retain, the expedition returned to England.

Fall of the Ministry of the Duke of Portland in Great Britain.

This disastrous expedition led to the fall of the Ministry of the Duke of Portland. George Canning, the young and able Secretary of Foreign Affairs, ascribed the failure to the incompetence of Lord Castlereagh, an Irish peer, who, after taking the leading part in bringing about the Parliamentary Union of Great Britain and Ireland, had been raised by the Duke of Portland to the post of Secretary of War. The quarrel between these two Ministers ended in a duel between them and in the resignation of their offices, in September, 1809. The Duke of Portland also resigned; and a new Ministry was formed, in which the Tory members of the preceding Ministry had the chief places and which was headed by Spencer Perceval, a man of industry but of the narrowest kind of mediocrity. The Marquis Wellesley, a brother of Sir Arthur Wellesley, the British commander in the Spanish peninsula, succeeded Canning as Secretary of Foreign Affairs. Though lacking most of the higher qualities of statesmanship, the Perceval Ministry was resolute in its determination to continue the war against Napoleon. Despair seemed to have taken possession of the British nation because of the defeat of Austria and the failure of the Walcheren expedition and because of Napoleon's apparent invincibility.

Ministry of Spencer Perceval.

Napoleon's Divorce from Josephine.

After the Peace of Schönbrunn, Napoleon stood at the highest pinnacle of his power and greatness. The only thing that caused him any anxiety was the reflection that he had no heir, and for reasons of state he resolved to ally himself with one of the oldest and most illustrious of the royal families of Europe. He accordingly obtained a divorce from Josephine, December 15, 1809, on the ground of some informality in their nuptials. Josephine, to whom Napoleon was

tenderly attached, reluctantly gave her consent to what was a state necessity; and the divorce was ratified by the civil and ecclesiastical authorities at Paris.

His Marriage with Maria Louisa of Austria.

Napoleon then demanded the hand of the Archduchess Maria Louisa, the daughter of the Emperor Francis of Austria, in marriage. However averse the Austrian Emperor may have been to such a match, he dared not refuse the demand of the mighty potentate who had crushed his armies at Austerlitz and Wagram; and the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp at Vienna, March 11, 1810, and at Paris, April 2, 1810. Five queens supported the imperial bride's train, and an unexampled magnificence was displayed; but a fire during the ball that Schwarzenberg, the Austrian ambassador at Paris, gave in honor of the newly-married pair and in which his sister perished in the flames, was considered an evil omen.

Its Effect on Napoleon's Future.

Napoleon's marriage with Maria Louisa seemed to strengthen his power; but it was really the cause of his fall, as the other powers of Europe feared that, secured by the Austrian alliance, he would attempt to bring all Europe under his sway. So this imperial marriage, instead of being the security of Napoleon's power, was the turning-point in his wonderful career—the moment when the star of the "Man of Destiny" had reached its zenith and commenced its decline.

No Gain for Him by this Marriage.

By this marriage with a Hapsburg princess, the Corsican who by the mere force of his genius had raised himself from the condition of an unknown and friendless youth, from a penniless charity student at Brienne, to be the master of all the hereditary crowned heads of Europe and to control the destinies of a continent—this "Man of Destiny" had nothing to gain by intermarriage with an imperial family which had nothing but antiquity to recommend it; while the French people looked upon him as having abjured the principle on which his greatness was based.

His Practical Renunciation of His Past Character.

By this imperial marriage with the princess of a family which based its claims on the principle of legitimacy and divine right, Napoleon practically renounced his character of a self-raised monarch who attained his position through the circumstances of a mighty political revolution and who was fighting against all the old and legitimate royal and imperial courts of Europe; thus placing himself in an awkward position relative to Austria, which he should either have crushed after his victory at Wagram or have restored to her former dignity and possessions after his marriage with the Austrian archduchess.

Change in the Character of His Empire.

While Napoleon did not deprive Austria of either the power or the desire to retain her enmity toward him, he changed the character of his Empire and separated it from the popular interests. He sought to grace his court with old noble families, and exerted himself to his utmost

to blend the old nobility of France with that which he had created, as he had already done with the old and new dynasties. Austerlitz had confirmed the *democratic* empire, but Wagram was to establish the *noble* empire.

His Repeated Acts of Violence.

Pride and ambition drove Napoleon from one act of violence to another; and there was no end to the alliances, separations and interchanges of lands and territories. What this despot created one day he destroyed the next, and him whom he made a great man one year he humbled in the next. The blockade of the Continent of Europe became more rigid daily, to the utter despair of the merchants and traders.

His Quarrel with His Brother Louis, King of Holland.

The just and liberal policy of Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, especially in his resistance to the Continental System in favor of the commercial interests of his subpects, intensely displeased his imperial brother. When Louis relaxed the severity of the blockade of the ports of his dominions and connived at the importation of English goods he was treated so unkindly and unworthily by Napoleon that he ceded to him Dutch Brabant, Zealand and a part of Guelders; and by a treaty signed at Paris, March 16, 1810, a force of twelve thousand Dutch and six thousand French troops were to be stationed at the mouths of all the rivers of Holland to protect the French revenue officers who were superintending the execution of the French Emperor's orders. But Louis Bonaparte did not purchase the independence of his kingdom by this great sacrifice; and Napoleon sent a French army to occupy all Holland, under the pretext that the French officials had received certain insults from the exasperated Dutch people. Thereupon Louis Bonaparte abdicated the throne of Holland in favor of his son, July 3, 1810, and retired into Austria; but Napoleon, indignant at an act on which he had not been consulted, annexed the Kingdom of Holland to the French Empire by a decree issued at Rambouillet, July 9, 1810.

Holland Annexed to the French Empire.

Napoleon's Annexations of Valais and all North Germany.

The Swiss canton of Valais, which had formed an independent republic since 1802, was annexed to the French Empire by a decree from Napoleon, November 12, 1810, in order to secure the road over the Simplon in the undisturbed possession of France. The Electorate of Hanover had already been annexed to Jerome Bonaparte's Kingdom of Westphalia. The most important of all Napoleon's usurpations, and that which was instrumental in leading to his downfall, was the annexation of the Hanse towns—Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck—along with the Duchies of Oldenburg and Lauenburg, the Grand Duchy of Berg and other territories in Northern Germany, to the French Empire by a decree of the French Senate, December 13, 1810, at Napoleon's demand as stated in a message which he addressed to that pliant and

subservient body. By this annexation the French Empire extended along the entire southern coast of the North Sea and numbered one hundred and thirty Departments. Hamburg was made the capital of the French territory in North Germany, and the cruel Marshal Davoust was assigned to the administration of French law therein.

Bernadotte Elected Crown Prince of Sweden.

The Prince Royal of Sweden—Prince Christian Augustus of Holstein-Augustenburg—died suddenly in the spring of 1810; whereupon the Swedish Diet assembled at Orebro and elected the French marshal Jean Baptiste Julius Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, to the dignity of Crown Prince of Sweden, to succeed as king on the death of the old and childless Charles XIII. This election was unanimous; but only one hundred and forty of the Swedish nobility were present at the Diet, out of more than a thousand who had the right to appear. Bernadotte accepted so honorable an offer, which had been tendered him because of his kind treatment of the Swedish troops during Napoleon's war with Prussia. Napoleon very reluctantly yielded his assent to this choice of the Swedish Diet. Upon his arrival in Sweden, Bernadotte professed the Lutheran faith, as his ancestors in France had done in the past; after which King Charles XIII. adopted him as his heir, and he was proclaimed Crown Prince of Sweden at Stockholm under the name of Charles John, November 5, 1810. Twelve days later Sweden declared war against Great Britain, November 19, 1810.

British Conquest of French Foreign Possessions.

The year 1810, which witnessed the zenith of Napoleon's greatness in Europe, was also signalized by the conquest of the remaining foreign possessions of France by the British. A British armament under Admiral Cochrane and General Beckwith attacked and captured the island of Guadaloupe, in the West Indies. A British expedition under Lord Minto, then Governor-General of British India, and a thousand British troops from the Cape of Good Hope reduced the French Isle of Bourbon, in the Indian Ocean, July 7, 1810, and that of the Mauritius some months later.

Permanent Insanity of King George III.

The death of the Princess Amelia, the youngest and favorite child of George III., in November, 1810, cast a gloom over the British royal family and so affected the mind of His Majesty that he sank into a state of incurable insanity early in 1811, in which condition he remained during the last nine years of his life, during which he was also totally blind.

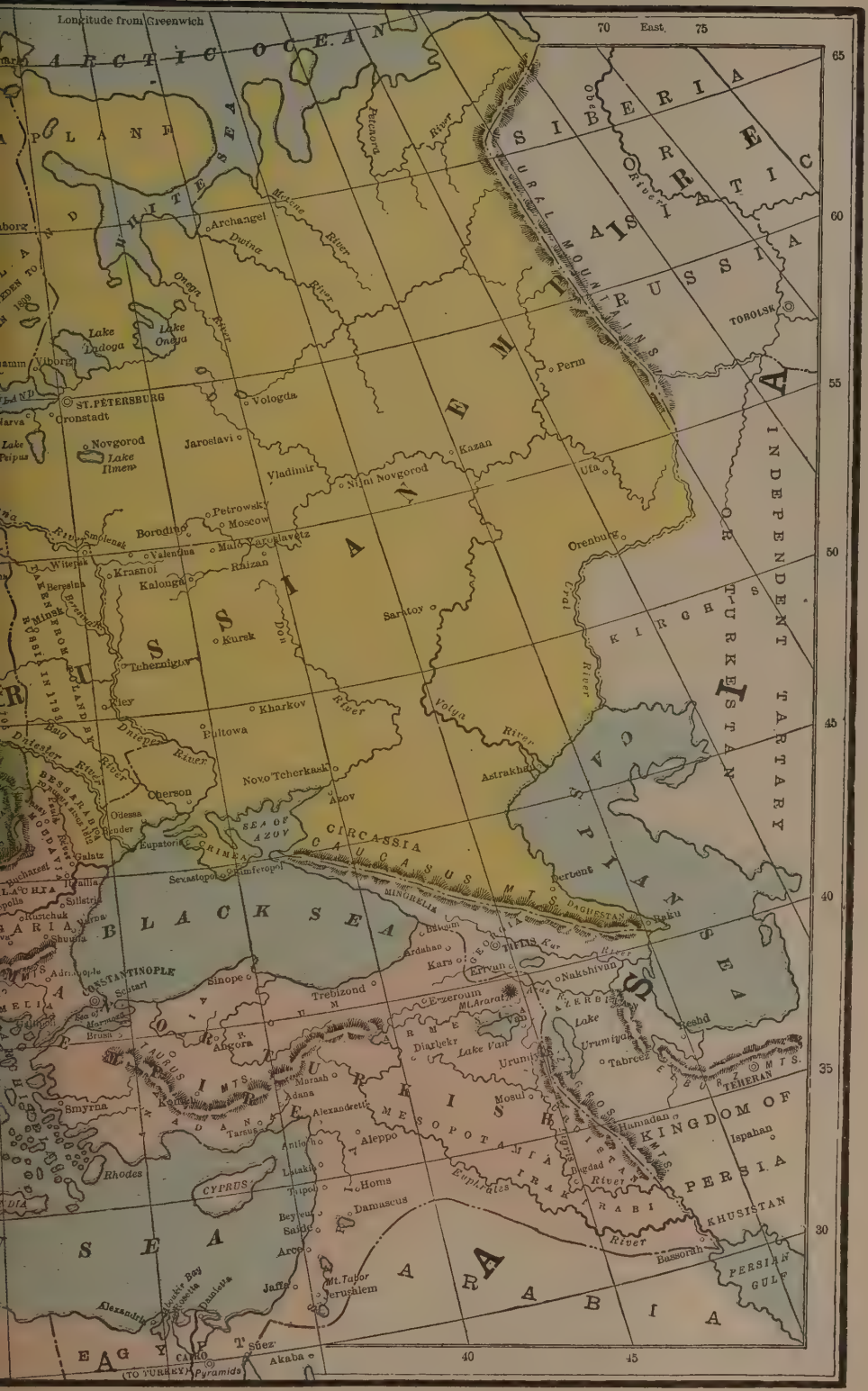
Regency of the Prince of Wales.

In consequence of this calamity, the Prince of Wales was declared Prince Regent by act of Parliament. The prince was an ardent Whig in politics and desired to have Spencer Perceval's Tory Ministry replaced by a Whig Cabinet.

Napoleon's Heir.

The future of Napoleon's great Empire seemed to be secured by the birth of a son, March 20, 1811, who received the pompous title of *King of Rome;* but the great Emperor's violence and ambition was

MAP OF
EUROPE
in Napoleon's Time
about A. D. 1810
By I. S. Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300 400
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BAY OF BISCAY
ENGLISH CHANNEL
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
ICELAND
FAROE ISLES (To Denmark)
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
SKAGER RACK
KATTEGAT
GULF OF BOTHNIA
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
HELVETIC REPUBLIC
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF SICILY
BALEARIC ISLES
Minorca
Majorca
Ivica
Corsica (To France)
Malta (To England since 1801)
EMPIRE OF MOROCCO
ALGIERS
TUNIS
TRIPOLI
(TO TURKEY)
ALGIERS
Constantina
Bona
Kairwan
Benghaz
Tangier (To England)
Ceuta
Gibraltar (To England)
Trafalgar
St. Vincent
Cape Finisterre
Cape Ortegal
Cape Creus
Cape Corse
Cape Spartivento
Cape Passaro
Cape Bon
Cape Blanco
Cape Bona
Cape Matapan
Cape Colonna
Cape Otranto
Cape Leucate
Cape Carbonara
Cape Palos
Cape Gata
Cape Tenez
Cape Spartel
Cape Nao
Cape Roca
Cape Espichel
Cape Mondego
Cape Ortugal
Cape Machichaco
Cape Ortegal
Cape Finisterre
Cape Vilano
Cape Villano
Cape Penas
Cape Ortugal
Cape Machichaco
Cape Ortegal
Cape Finisterre
Cape Vilano
Cape Villano
Cape Penas


Longitude from Greenwich
70
East.
75
65
60
55
50
45
40
35
30
ARCTIC OCEAN
WHITE SEA
LAPLAND
SIBERIA
ASIATIC
RUSSIA
INDEPENDENT TARTARY
KIRGHISTAN
EUROPEAN
RUSSIA
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
SEA OF AZOV
CIRCASSIA
CAUCASUS MTS.
DAGUESTAN
MINGRELIA
GEORGIA
TURKEY IN ASIA
KINGDOM OF PERSIA
KHUSISTAN
PERSIAN GULF
ARABIA
EGYPT
CYPRUS
CRIMEA
BESSARABIA
MOLDAVIA
WALLACHIA
BULGARIA
ROUMELIA
ANATOLIA
SYRIA
MESOPOTAMIA
ARABIA PETRÆA
ARCHANGEL
ST. PETERSBURG
Cronstadt
Novgorod
Lake Ilmen
Lake Ladoga
Lake Onega
Vologda
Jaroslavi
Vladimir
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Perm
Ufa
Orenburg
TOBOLSK
Moscow
Borodino
Smolensk
Witepsk
Mohilef
Valentina
Malo-Yaroslavetz
Raizan
Kaluga
Kursk
Tchernigov
Kief
Kharkov
Poltowa
Saratoy
Astrakhan
Novo Tcherkask
Azov
Cherson
Odessa
Ismail
Galatz
Eupatoria
Sevastopol
Simferopol
Derbent
Kertch
Taman
Anapa
Sinope
Trebizond
Kars
Erivan
Ardahan
Akhaltzik
Nakshivan
Erzeroum
Mt. Ararat
Lake Van
Lake Urumiah
Tabreez
Kasbd
TEHERAN
Ispahan
Hamadan
Diarbekr
Mosul
Aleppo
Alexandretta
Adana
Marash
Tarsus
Aintab
Smyrna
Angora
Brussa
Constantinople
Scutari
Rhodes
Latakia
Tripoli
Homs
Damascus
Beyrout
Saida
Acre
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Mt. Tabor
Alexandria
Cairo
Pyramids
Suez
Akaba
Bassorah
Bagdad
Euphrates River
Tigris River
Volga River
Ural Mountains
Petchora River
Mezene River
Dwina River
Onega River
Swir River
Ob River
Irtish River
Ural River
Don River
Dnieper River
Dniester River
Pruth River
Danube River
Kuban River
Terek River
Kur River
Araxes River
Jordan River
Nile River
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Sea of Azov
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
White Sea
Baltic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Arctic Ocean

hurrying on the crisis which led to his fall. His oppressions in North Germany had established military despotism in that quarter. The last vestiges of freedom were suppressed by a formidable state-police, which threatened every suspected person with persecution and imprisonment. The place of popular rights was usurped by arbitrariness, passion and despotism. Friendly states were burdened with restrictions on trade, oppressive taxation and military conscriptions; while the hostile states suffered the calamities of war, military exactions and the quarterings of troops.

His Despotism.

In the meantime the civil war in Egypt continued to rage between the Turks and the Mamelukes; and in 1811 Mehemet Ali, the powerful Pasha of Egypt, caused the Mameluke chiefs to be treacherously assassinated at an entertainment to which he had invited them for the purpose. The British navy was complete mistress of the seas, and took the island of Java, in the East Indies, from the Dutch in 1811.

Civil War in Egypt.

Massacre of the Mamelukes.

In March, 1812, Spencer Perceval, Prime Minister of Great Britain, was assassinated in the lobby of the House of Commons by a merchant named Bellingham, who imagined that the government had neglected his just claims. The assassin was tried at the Old Bailey and was executed, but he manifested little remorse for the horrible deed which he had committed. This crime led to the fall of the Tory Ministry, and the Prince Regent sought to recall the Whigs to power, but he failed in the effort, and the old Tory Ministry was restored to power under the guidance of the Earl of Liverpool, a man of no great abilities, but temperate, well-informed, and endowed with a singular gift of holding discordant colleagues together. The Ministry of the Earl of Liverpool remained in office for fifteen years, 1812–1827.

Assassination of Spencer Perceval.

Ministry of the Earl of Liverpool.

British aggressions upon neutral commerce and the enforcement of the British "right of search" against American vessels led to a war between Great Britain and the United States, in June, 1812—a war which lasted two and a half years and which will be fully described in the volume of this work relating to United States history.

British-American War of 1812.

SECTION XI.—NAPOLEON'S DISASTROUS RUSSIAN WAR OF 1812.

We have already seen that by the Peace of Tilsit, in 1807, the French and Russian Emperors became friends and allies and that they united in the maritime war against Great Britain. It soon became evident that this friendship could not be permanent, and the unconcern which Alexander exhibited in the war against Austria in 1809 increased the growing coldness between him and Napoleon. From the moment

Napoleon's Strained Relations with Russia.

of Napoleon's alliance with the House of Hapsburg, Alexander perceived that it would be impossible to avoid hostilities with Napoleon; and in 1811 the diplomacy between the French and Russian Cabinets began to assume a most angry character. The measures of Napoleon for destroying the trade of Great Britain and the closing of the Russian ports against British vessels had inflicted great injury upon Russian commerce. The complaints of the Russian merchants induced Alexander to open the ports of his dominions to British vessels upon certain conditions, and a heavy tariff was laid upon French goods. These proceedings provoked the anger of the French Emperor. The aggrandizement of Napoleon in Central Europe and the annexation of the possessions of the Duke of Oldenburg, a near relative of Alexander, to the French Empire destroyed the last tie of friendship between the two Emperors; and in the spring of 1812 both began to prepare earnestly for war.

His Aggressions.

The threatened establishment of a French maritime arsenal at Lübeck, the continued occupation of the Prussian fortresses by French garrisons and the concentration of French troops between the Oder and the Vistula, along with the attempt to unite Denmark, Sweden and the Grand Duchy of Warsaw into a Northern Confederation under Napoleon's protection—all indicated an intention of violating the Treaty of Tilsit whenever it should suit Napoleon's convenience to dispense with it. The Czar Alexander I. prepared for resistance by stationing an army of ninety thousand men at the exposed points upon the western Russian frontiers.

His Final Rupture with Sweden and Russia.

Russia's war with the French Emperor was hastened by the influence of Sweden. Bernadotte, as Crown Prince of Sweden, disapproved of Napoleon's Continental System, which was ruining Swedish commerce; and the admission of English goods into Pomerania soon led to hostilities between France and Sweden. The French seized Swedish vessels in German harbors and sent their crews to Antwerp in irons. The cruel Marshal Davoust, the French commander in Northern Germany, occupied Pomerania, imprisoned the Swedish officials at Hamburg and appointed Frenchmen in their places. Bernadotte, who ruled Sweden during the illness of King Charles XIII., appealed to the Czar of Russia for aid; and, in answer to this appeal, the Czar Alexander I. formed alliances with Sweden and Great Britain, having just concluded the Peace of Bucharest with Turkey, through the mediation of Great Britain, May 28, 1812.

His Great Aims.

Napoleon's great object in his war against Russia was to destroy that great power and to unite all Europe into one universal empire under his own dominion. Said he: "I must make one nation out of all the European states, and Paris must be the capital of the world. There

must be all over Europe but one legislative code, one court of appeal, one currency, one standard of weights and measures."

His Grand Army.

On the 16th of May, 1812, Napoleon held a meeting with the Emperor of Austria, the Kings of Prussia, Naples, Westphalia and Würtemberg and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine at Dresden. After this grand assemblage of princes had lasted ten days, Napoleon went to assume the command of the *Grand Army*, which he had assembled in Poland for the invasion of Russia. Napoleon had concluded a treaty with Austria, by which that power agreed to furnish him with thirty thousand men, under the command of Prince Schwarzenberg; and Prussia, by a similar treaty, agreed to furnish him with twenty thousand men. The Grand Army now numbered more than five hundred thousand men and was composed of French, Austrians, Prussians, Germans, Italians and Poles. Of this immense host eighty thousand were cavalry. The whole number of horses belonging to the army amounted to almost one hundred and ninety thousand. The Russian forces, under Barclay de Tolly, Prince Bagration and other generals, which were assembled in Poland and the western Russian provinces, amounted to three hundred thousand men.

Napoleon's Invasion of Russia.

On the 22d of June, 1812, Napoleon issued a declaration of war against Russia; and on the 24th he crossed the Niemen and invaded the Russian dominions. The Russians, in accordance with the plan of their generals, avoided battles, retreated before the advancing French forces and laid waste the country through which they passed, so that the French army might find no subsistence from it. Napoleon, with the main body of the Grand Army, pursued the retreating Russians, and reached Wilna on the 28th, where he remained until the middle of August, when he continued his advance toward Moscow in pursuit of the retreating Russians. Already the effects of the destructive policy of the Russians began to be felt in the French army; as twenty-five thousand sick and dying men filled the hospitals and ten thousand dead horses strewed the road to Wilna, while one hundred and twenty-five pieces of artillery had been abandoned.

Battle of Smolensk.

At Smolensk, on the 17th of August, 1812, thirty thousand Russians made a stand against the French. Three furious assaults upon this strongly-fortified town were repulsed by the Russians; but during the night the inhabitants set fire to the town, which was soon reduced to ashes, and fled with the army.

Barclay de Tolly Superseded by Kutusoff.

The Russians continued to retreat toward Moscow, pursued by the French. The mode of warfare pursued by the Russian general, Barclay de Tolly, was not approved by his soldiers, who were anxious for a battle with the invaders of their country. For this reason the Emperor Alexander removed Barclay de Tolly and appointed General

Kutusoff, who had distinguished himself in the war with Turkey which had just closed, to the chief command of the Russian army.

Battle of Borodino.

On the 7th of September, 1812, Kutusoff risked a battle with Napoleon at Borodino, on the Moskwa, in the hope of saving Moscow. In the morning when this sanguinary engagement began each army numbered one hundred and thirty thousand men. The battle had commenced at six o'clock in the morning, and when night put an end to its horrors ninety thousand men lay dead and wounded on the field. The result of the battle was that the Russians were obliged to resume their retreat and the French were enabled to continue their advance in the direction of Moscow.

Napoleon's Occupation of Moscow.

At length, on the 14th of September, 1812, the French army came in sight of the great city of Moscow and beheld its lofty steeples and copper domes glittering in the sun. When the city burst upon his gaze Napoleon exclaimed: "Behold; yonder is the celebrated city of the Czars!" The French troops rushed forward and entered Moscow on the same day, but they were astonished to find it deserted by its three hundred thousand inhabitants. Only a few of the rabble remained in the city. Napoleon took up his residence in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars.

Burning of Moscow.

Before Moscow had been abandoned by its inhabitants, Count Rostopschin, the Russian governor, had taken measures to burn the city after the French should enter. Accordingly, on the night of the 16th of September, 1812, a vast fire was seen to emanate from the eastern part of the city. Fires soon broke out in all quarters of the city, and in a few hours the holy city of the Russians was wrapt in flames. The city had been set on fire by the twenty thousand convicts whom Rostopschin, before leaving the city, had liberated for the purpose. No means were at hand for extinguishing the fire; as the fountains had been destroyed, the fire-engines carried off and the water-pipes cut before the inhabitants had left the city. For four days the fire continued to rage unabated, reducing the greater part of the city to ashes. When the fire had reached the Kremlin, Napoleon abandoned that edifice and took up his abode in the imperial castle at Petrowski, three miles from the city. He returned on the 19th and took up his quarters in that part of the Kremlin which had escaped the ravages of the fire.

Napoleon's Evacuation of Moscow.

The destruction of Moscow deprived the French army of winter-quarters; the Russian armies, which were now vastly superior to the French, threatened to cut off all communications with France; and the Russian Emperor rejected all Napoleon's proposals for peace. In this critical situation Napoleon found himself obliged to order a retreat to Poland; and on the 19th of October, 1812, Moscow was evacuated by the French army. Napoleon, however, left a division of eight thou-

sand men under Marshal Mortier to superintend the evacuation of the city. For several days Mortier and his brave little band defended themselves in the Kremlin against their Russian assailants, when, on the 22d, they abandoned the city to join Napoleon. Before the French left Moscow barrels of gunpowder had been placed under various parts of the Kremlin, which were lighted by means of a fuse. No sooner had the Russians entered the Kremlin than that venerable edifice was blown into the air; and pieces of timber, rocks, broken weapons, pieces of cannon and mutilated bodies were thrown in every direction. The thunders of the explosion awoke Napoleon and his troops, thirty miles distant. Mortier and his heroic little band reached the main French army in safety.

Destruction of the Kremlin

On the 24th of October, 1812, a portion of the French army, under Murat, after a succession of stubborn engagements, defeated the Russians at Malo-Yaraslevetz and remained masters of the town. This was a useless victory for the French, who soon found themselves obliged to retreat as rapidly as possible by the very route which their advance had exhausted.

Battle of Malo-Yaraslevetz.

The horrors of this retreat of the French army exceeded anything recorded in the annals of war. The Russians sent out their Cossacks, under Platoff, who greatly annoyed the French rear and cut off French straggling parties; while the main division of the Russian army pursued the retreating French troops and forced them to contest every inch of ground. The French army was encumbered with its sick and dying. On the 6th of November, 1812, an enemy far more terrible than the bullets of the Russians or the lances of the Cossacks made its appearance. This enemy was a Russian winter of unusual severity. The thermometer sank to eighteen degrees below zero, and the cold wind howled furiously over the vast steppes. The French army was becoming weaker and weaker by the casualties of battle and by fatigue, hunger and cold. The roads were strewn with the dead and dying men and horses. The starving troops fell upon the dead and dying horses and devoured their flesh like famished dogs, and many who had remained with the dying embers of the bivouac fires fell asleep to wake no more. All discipline was gone, and all the heavy artillery was abandoned to the pursuing Russians.

Napoleon's Disastrous Retreat.

The main Russian army, under Kutusoff, numbering one hundred thousand men, advanced by a route parallel to that of the French army; while another army, under Wittgenstein, pressed upon the French rear; and Platoff's Cossacks harassed the retreating troops and cut off such as were so unfortunate as to stray from their ranks. On the 9th of November, 1812, Napoleon and his wearied troops reached Smolensk, where they rested until the 15th, when the disastrous retreat

The Pursuing Russian Armies.

was renewed. The French rear-guard, under Marshal Ney, was almost totally destroyed.

Battles of Krasnoi.

In the battles of Krasnoi, on the 16th, 17th and 18th of November, 1812, the French lost thirty thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners.

Ney's Passage of the Dnieper.

Ney's fortunate but dangerous passage of the frozen Dnieper was one of the most daring feats recorded in history. The troops crossed the thin ice in safety; but the wagons containing the sick and wounded sank, amid the shrieks of the unfortunate sufferers.

Dreadful Passage of the Beresina.

The most horrible of this series of horrors was the passage of the Beresina. While the French were passing over the bridges the enemy under Wittgenstein and Platoff appeared and opened a heavy attack upon them. One of the bridges, unable to bear the weight of the crowd upon it, broke, thus precipitating into the stream thousands, whose dying shrieks were heard loud above the roar of the Russian cannon and the cheers of the Cossacks. Many who attempted to cross over the other bridge were swept off by the Russian artillery or thrown over in the confusion by their comrades. The following spring, when the ice melted, thirty-six thousand dead bodies were found in the channel of the Beresina.

Destruction of Napoleon's Grand Army.

The mournful disaster just related completed the destruction of Napoleon's Grand Army. When the remnants of the French army reached the Niemen the rear-guard, under Marshal Ney, Prince of the Moskwa, "the Bravest of the Brave," was reduced to thirty men. The veteran marshal, bearing a musket and pointing it at the pursuing enemy, was the last of the Grand Army that left the Russian territory. Napoleon had already left the army at Smorgoni on the 5th of December, 1812, and started in a sledge for Paris, where he arrived on the 18th. In this disastrous campaign the losses of Napoleon were as follows: One hundred and twenty-five thousand men killed in battle; one hundred and thirty-two thousand died from cold, hunger and fatigue; and one hundred and ninety-three thousand made prisoners by the Russians. Thus the total loss was four hundred and fifty thousand men.

SECTION XII.—WAR OF GERMAN LIBERATION AND FALL OF NAPOLEON (A. D. 1813–1814).

Moral Effect of Napoleon's Russian Disaster.

THE moral effect of the Russian disaster was a far more serious misfortune to Napoleon than the loss of his great army, as it destroyed the belief in his invincibility and consequently encouraged the subject nations to throw off the supremacy before which they had been compelled to bow and to assert their former dignity and independence. It proved to be, as Talleyrand called it, "the beginning of the end."

Prussia's Alliance with Russia and Sweden.

Prussia was the first of the powers which had suffered from the insolence of the great conqueror to take advantage of the great misfortune which had befallen him. As early as December, 1812, the Prussian General York, who had commanded under the French Marshal Macdonald in the Russian campaign, had entered into an agreement with the Russian Marshal Diebitsch to cease from hostilities against Russia. Although the conduct of General York was at first disapproved by the Prussian government, the patriotic war spirit of the Prussian people was every day becoming more manifest. At length, on the 3d of February, 1813, Prussia concluded an alliance with Russia and Sweden and declared war against the French Emperor. The King of Prussia welcomed the Russian army in Berlin.

Prussian Military Enthusiasm.

The intense ill-usage which Prussia experienced at Napoleon's hands had excited such detestation of the foreign despotism that the Prussian king's "call to his people" to take up arms aroused an incredible military ardor, and the greatest enthusiasm pervaded all classes of the Prussian people. Men and youths abandoned their accustomed pursuits and left the circles of affection that they might devote their energies to their country's liberation from foreign domination. Students and professors left the lecture-room; officials left their posts; young nobles left their homes. All shouldered the musket and carried the knapsack and entered the ranks as common soldiers, along with the mechanic who had deserted the workshop and with the peasant who had left the plow that he might wield the sword.

The King of Saxony Stands by Napoleon.

The people of Hamburg rose against the French garrison and opened their gates to the Russians, their harbor to the British. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia sought to gain the alliance of the King of Saxony; but Frederick Augustus, through fear of the French Emperor and through gratitude for the many proofs of favor and confidence which Napoleon had shown him, held fast to his alliance with the French Emperor, at whose disposal he had placed his lands, his fortresses and his troops, thus making Saxony the theater of hostilities.

Napoleon's New Army in Germany.

Notwithstanding his great losses in Russia, Napoleon's ascendency over the French nation was so great that every demand which he made for men and money met with a prompt response; and by the opening of the year 1813 he succeeded in raising a new army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, exclusive of his troops in Spain. Napoleon left Paris, April 15, 1813, and hastened to Erfurt, in Saxony, where he assumed the command of his army, and marched against the allied forces. Thus began the *War of German Liberation.*

The spring campaign of 1813 was favorable to Napoleon. He gained a victory over the allied Russian and Prussian armies at Lützen,

Battles of Lutzen and Bautzen.

May 2, 1813, the place rendered famous by the victory and death of Gustavus Adolphus nearly two centuries before; the allies being forced to retreat after a terrific conflict, in which the Prussian Marshal Scharnhorst and the French Marshal Bessieres were slain. Napoleon pursued the retreating allies; and after a desperate engagement of two days at Bautzen, May 20 and 21, 1813, he was again victorious, and the allied Russian and Prussian armies were driven from their intrenched camp. The losses were heavy on both sides, and during the pursuit the next day the French Marshal Duroc was killed. The death of Duroc, whom Napoleon loved and esteemed above all others for his amiability, fidelity and attachment, was a great shock to the French Emperor, who thus for the first time gave way to a dark presentiment of the mutabilities of life.

An Armistice.

The defeated Russians and Prussians retreated into Silesia, falling back to Schweidnitz, pursued as far as Breslau by the victorious French. The allies now asked for an armistice; and Napoleon granted one for eight weeks—from June 4th to July 28th—for the purpose of negotiating a peace. In the meantime the French Emperor had established his headquarters at Dresden, thus directing his military operations from the capital of Saxony.

Davoust Retakes Hamburg.

Marshal Davoust, at the head of a corps of French and Danes, retook Hamburg, May 30, 1813; and, in revenge for the expulsion of the French garrison, he destroyed eight thousand houses, thus rendering forty-eight thousand people homeless. A British fleet appeared

Denmark an Ally of Napoleon.

off Copenhagen, May 31, 1813, and demanded the cession of Norway to Sweden; whereupon King Frederick VI. of Denmark concluded a treaty with Napoleon at Copenhagen, promising to declare war against Sweden, Russia and Prussia.

Austria Joins the Allies.

The armistice had been concluded through the mediation of Austria; but the allies were insincere in their professed desire for peace, as they employed the time afforded by the armistice to organize another coalition of all the other European powers against France. Austria pushed forward her military preparations with all possible haste, and at length submitted her ultimatum to Napoleon, demanding as the price of her aid to France that he should surrender Poland, Holland, Spain, Switzerland and half of Italy, and also that the Confederation of the Rhine should be dissolved and that the Pope should be reëstablished in his temporal power at Rome. Napoleon indignantly rejected Austria's terms; but the peace Congress convened at Prague, according to prearrangement, July 4, 1813. After several weeks of fruitless negotiations, hostilities were renewed August 10, 1813, when the Emperor of Austria joined the allies and declared war against his son-in-law, the Emperor of the French.

Treaties of the New Coalition.

The following were the treaties constituting the new coalition against Napoleon: 1. The Treaty of Reichenbach between Great Britain and Prussia, June 14, 1813, by which the former agreed to furnish a subsidy of six hundred and sixty-six thousand six hundred and sixty-six pounds sterling to the latter for the maintenance of eighty thousand troops, while the King of Prussia agreed to cede the principality of Hildesheim and other territory to the Electorate of Hanover. 2. The Treaty of Reichenbach between Great Britain and Russia, June 15, 1813, by which the former agreed to pay to the latter a subsidy of one million three hundred and thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-four pounds sterling for the maintenance of one hundred and sixty thousand troops. 3. The Treaty of Reichenbach between Austria, Prussia and Russia, June 27, 1813, by which Austria engaged to declare war against Napoleon if he rejected her conditions of peace. 4. The Treaty of Peterswaldau between Great Britain and Russia, July 6, 1813, by which the former agreed to support a German legion of ten thousand men for the Russian service. 5. The Treaty of Toplitz between Austria, Prussia and Russia, September 9, 1813, by which these three powers were to aid each other with sixty thousand troops. 6. The Treaty of Toplitz between Great Britain and Austria.

The Immense Allied Armies.

The plan of the fall campaign of 1813 for the allies had been agreed upon in a conference held at Trachenberg by the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, King Frederick William III. of Prussia, the Crown Prince Bernadotte of Sweden and the plenipotentiaries of Austria and Great Britain. The allied forces numbered seven hundred thousand men, and were divided into seven armies—the Army of Bohemia, under the Austrian Prince Schwarzenberg, consisting of two hundred and thirty-seven thousand men, Austrians, Prussians and Russians, with six hundred and ninety-eight pieces of cannon; the Army of the North, under the Crown Prince Bernadotte of Sweden, numbering one hundred and fifty-four thousand men, Prussians, Russians and Swedes, with three hundred and eighty-seven pieces of cannon; the Army of Silesia, under the Prussian Field-Marshal Blücher, amounting to ninety-five thousand men, Prussians and Russians, with three hundred and fifty-six pieces of cannon; the Austrian Army of Bavaria, under the Prince of Reuss, containing forty-two thousand seven hundred troops, with forty-two pieces of cannon; the Austrian Army of Italy, under General Hiller, fifty thousand strong, with one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon; the Austrian Army of Reserve, under Duke Ferdinand of Würtemberg, sixty thousand strong, stationed between Vienna and Pressburg; and the Russian Army of Reserve in Poland, under Benningson, fifty-seven thousand strong, with one hundred and ninety-eight pieces of cannon.

Napoleon's Army. To oppose these immense forces of his enemies, Napoleon had an army of four hundred and sixty-two thousand men, including eighty thousand who occupied thirteen fortresses. He had, besides this force, the Bavarian army, which watched the movements of the Austrian army under the Prince of Reuss, and an army of forty thousand men under his stepson, the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais, in Italy, which opposed the Austrian army under General Hiller.

Battle of Dresden. Hostilities were resumed with vigor; and the allied Austrian, Prussian and Russian army under Prince Schwarzenberg—the Army of Bohemia—marched against Napoleon at Dresden, but was repulsed by him before that famous Saxon capital after a bloody battle of two days, August 26 and 27, 1813. In this battle General Moreau, who had been recalled from America by Bernadotte and who now fought on the side of the allies, was mortally wounded. In the battle of Dresden the vanquished allies lost twenty-five thousand men, of whom six thousand were killed and wounded, and twenty-six pieces of artillery; while the victorious French lost eighteen thousand men. After their defeat the allies retreated toward Bohemia.

Battle of Gross-Beeren. The advantages which Napoleon might have secured by his victory at Dresden were lost by the defeats sustained by his marshals and generals at other points. The allied Army of the North under Bernadotte covered Berlin, which was menaced by a French force of eighty thousand men under Marshal Oudinot; but the victory of the Prussians under Bülow at Gross-Beeren, August 23, 1813, saved the Prussian capital from the French.

Battle of the Katzbach. The allied Army of Silesia under Blücher attacked and defeated the French under Marshal Macdonald at the Katzbach, in Silesia, August 26, 1813, taking ten thousand prisoners and one hundred and three pieces of artillery. A French detachment of eight thousand men under General Puthod was obliged to surrender to the Russians under Count Langeron at Plagwitz, August 29, 1813.

Battle of Kulm. A French detachment of thirty thousand men under Vandamme, which had been sent to cut off the retreat of the allies before the battle of Dresden, repulsed eight thousand Russians under Count Ostermann Tolstoi as far as the valley of Kulm, in Bohemia, August 29, 1813, Count Ostermann Tolstoi having his left arm shot off; but when the Russians were reinforced by several Russian and Prussian detachments, sent to their aid by the King of Prussia, the allies were enabled to maintain their position. During the night new Russian reinforcements under Barclay de Tolly arrived; and the next day, August 30, 1813, the battle of Kulm was decided by Kleist's daring march across the heights of Nollendorf behind Vandamme's position, thus cutting off his retreat. A part of the French cavalry cut their way through a regiment of re-

cruits, but Vandamme himself surrendered with ten thousand men and eighty-one pieces of artillery.

Battle of Dennewitz.

Napoleon sent Marshal Ney with eighty thousand men to capture Berlin; but Ney was routed by Bernadotte at Dennewitz, September 6, 1813, the victorious Crown Prince of Sweden taking twenty thousand prisoners, with eighty pieces of artillery and all the French baggage.

Napoleon's Retreat from Dresden to Leipsic.

Bavaria now concluded the Treaty of Ried with Austria, and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine were beginning to join the allies. The allies now proceeded to concentrate their armies at Dresden in Napoleon's rear, in order to cut off his retreat to France. After passing several days in indecision as to his course, the French Emperor left Dresden, October 7, 1813, with one hundred and forty thousand men, and fell back to Leipsic, where he arrived October 15, 1813.

Concentration of the Allied Armies.

Napoleon's army was largely outnumbered by the allied Armies of the North, Bohemia and Silesia and the Russian Army of Reserve; consisting of the Austrians under Prince Schwarzenberg, the Prussians under Blücher, the Russians under Barclay de Tolly and Benningsen, and the Swedes under the Crown Prince Bernadotte; together numbering two hundred and thirty thousand men, under the command of the Austrian marshal, Prince Schwarzenberg. The allies had maneuvered so skillfully that they were ready to effect a junction at a given signal.

Three Days' Battle of Leipsic.

In the terrible three days' battle of Leipsic, October 16, 17 and 18, 1813—the *Battle of the Nations*—almost half a million men were engaged in the work of death. The first day's conflicts fought at the villages of Wachau, Connewitz and Lindenau ended in Napoleon's success over Prince Schwarzenberg; but Blücher defeated the French under Marshal Marmont at Mockern. At night Napoleon, aware that the numerical superiority of the allies must tell in the end, made proposals of peace; but the allies, who were hourly expecting reinforcements, rejected his overtures. The fighting on the second day was indecisive, but Napoleon began to be aware of his perilous position.

Napoleon's Great Defeat.

For the first time Napoleon foresaw the possibility of defeat, and sent General Bertrand with a detachment to Weissenfels to secure the bridge over the Saal. The allies rejected Napoleon's proposals for peace and an armistice at daybreak on the morning of the third day of the battle. The French resisted the assaults of the allies with great bravery, but the numerical superiority of the allies finally prevailed, and Napoleon was in the end defeated with heavy loss. During the battle the Saxons and Würtembergers, twelve thousand in number, deserted Napoleon and went over to the Swedes under Bernadotte. The arrival of Bernadotte and Blücher finally decided the battle in favor of the allies. The carnage was frightful.

His Evacuation of Leipsic.

Napoleon was obliged to order a retreat; and on the morning of October 19, 1813, the French army abandoned Leipsic, which was then in the possession of the allies. The only means of escape was a single, long, narrow bridge across the Pleisse, the Elster and the marshes between them. This bridge was crowded to its utmost capacity, and the greater part of the French army passed over safely, but by a mistake of the French engineer the order for the destruction of the bridge was executed so hastily that the bridge was blown up before all the French troops had crossed. Thus the divisions under Marshal Macdonald and the brave Pole Prince Poniatowski, numbering together thirty thousand men, being cut off, were obliged to surrender to the victorious allies. Marshal Macdonald and the King of Saxony were made prisoners, and Prince Poniatowski was drowned while endeavoring to swim across the Elster. Napoleon's losses in the battle of Leipsic were seventy thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners, and three hundred pieces of cannon. The allies purchased their victory with the death of fifty thousand men.

Destruction of the Elster Bridge.

Napoleon's Retreat to the Rhine.

The French army now made a hasty retreat to the Rhine. The Austro-Bavarian army of fifty thousand men under General Wrede attempted to intercept Napoleon's retreat, but was defeated at Hanau, in Hesse-Cassel, October 30, 1813. In this battle Napoleon lost twenty-five thousand men in killed, wounded and prisoners. Napoleon's retreat now became a rapid flight; and it was with great difficulty that he was enabled to cross the Rhine at Mayence, November 2, 1813, with the thirty-five thousand men that still remained of his shattered army. Leaving his routed army to watch the frontier, Napoleon hastened to Paris, arriving there November 9, 1813.

Surrender of French Garrisons in Germany.

The victorious allies pursued the French to the Rhine immediately after the battle of Leipsic; and on November 5, 1813, the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia established his headquarters at Frankfort-on-the-Main. The French garrisons on the Elbe, the Oder and the Vistula surrendered during the remainder of the year 1813. Marshal St. Cyr, with twenty-seven thousand men, surrendered at Dresden. Dantzic surrendered with twenty thousand French troops, and Torgau with ten thousand. After the battle of Leipsic, Bernadotte with the allied Army of the North marched against the French under Marshal Davoust and their allies, the Danes. Davoust was blockaded at Hamburg, and the Danes retired into Schleswig, whereupon an armistice was granted to them.

Dissolution of the French Empire.

The battle of Leipsic was the death-blow to the French Empire. The dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine, the downfall of the Kingdom of Westphalia, the restoration of Hanover to the British king, the restoration of the Elector of Hesse-Cassel and of the Dukes

of Brunswick and Oldenburg to their governments, and Holland's recovery of her independence under the House of Orange, were events which occurred in rapid succession. Baden and Würtemberg entered into treaties with Austria and joined their forces to those of the allies. King Frederick VI. of Denmark, who thus far had adhered firmly to his alliance with Napoleon, was compelled to conclude the Peace of Kiel with Great Britain and Sweden, January 14, 1814, by which he ceded Norway to Sweden in exchange for Swedish Pomerania and the Isle of Rugen; whereupon Denmark joined the allies in the war against Napoleon, and received a subsidy of thirty-three thousand three hundred and thirty-three pounds sterling monthly from Great Britain for the maintenance of ten thousand troops.

Expulsion of the French from Italy.

In the meantime fortune was also averse to the French in Italy. In May, 1813, the viceroy Eugene Beauharnais had taken command of the French army of Italy, which occupied the Illyrian Provinces; but he was driven beyond the Adige by the Austrian army of Italy under General Hiller, who thus recovered Carinthia, Illyria and Dalmatia, and who, after obtaining possession of the Tyrol, was threatening to cut off the viceroy's retreat. Murat, King of Naples, Napoleon's brother-in-law, believing the French Emperor to be irretrievably ruined, accepted the promises of the allies and entered into a secret alliance with Austria, early in 1814, for the expulsion of the French from Italy. But Eugene Beauharnais remained loyal to Napoleon, although the allies offered him the crown of Lombardy if he would join them in the war against France. Early in 1814 Pope Pius VII. was released by Napoleon from his captivity at Fontainebleau and was restored to his authority in Rome. Napoleon had also released King Ferdinand VII. of Spain from his six years' captivity at Valençay, in France, and solemnly recognized him as King of Spain, December, 1813.

Napoleon's Fresh Military Preparations.

The Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia held a council with their Ministers and generals at Frankfort-on-the-Main, established a provisional government for the conquered lands and made the French Emperor another offer of peace if he would surrender his conquests; but Napoleon again resolved to risk the hazards of battle. Upon his return to Paris he frankly laid before the French Senate a statement of the actual condition of affairs and demanded another levy of three hundred thousand men. His demand was granted by the obsequious Senate, and new taxes were added to the already-heavy burdens of France in order to meet the expenses of the impending campaign. As the Corps Legislatif was not so subservient, Napoleon dissolved it. But with all his exertions he was able to raise an army of only about one hundred and ten thousand men, not including the troops confronting Lord Wellington's army in the South of France.

Allied Armies on the French Frontiers.

As Napoleon refused to consent to a peace requiring him to surrender his conquests, the allied monarchs determined upon his dethronement, and with this view they ordered their armies to cross the Rhine. France was now to be invaded on all sides, and the evils and humiliations which she had inflicted upon other nations were to be retaliated upon herself. Altogether the allies had more than a million men under arms to crush Napoleon. The allied armies under Blücher and Schwarzenberg were ready to enter France on the east; Bernadotte, the Crown Prince of Sweden, was advancing through Holland; the Austrians under Bellegarde were ready to cross the Alps from Italy; Wellington was in the South of France with the British and Portuguese forces, and the Anglo-Sicilian and Spanish armies were ready to cross the Pyrenees from Catalonia.

Allied Invasion of France.

The allied Grand Army of one hundred thousand men, composed chiefly of Austrians and commanded by Prince Schwarzenberg, advanced into France through Switzerland, regardless of the neutrality of the Swiss, crossing the Rhine at Basle, December 21, 1813, and leisurely marched to Langres, which surrendered on January 16, 1814. The allied Army of Silesia under Field-Marshal Blücher, consisting of Prussians and Russians, crossed the Rhine at several points between Mannheim and Coblentz before dawn on New Year's Day, 1814, advanced into France on the north-east and occupied Metz, Thionville and Nancy. Another army, consisting of Prussians under Bülow and Russians under Winzingerode, invaded France by way of Holland and Belgium, after driving the French from Holland and enabling the Prince of Orange to return to his Stadtholdership. The allied British and Portuguese army under Lord Wellington, after driving the French from the Spanish peninsula, pursued Marshal Soult across the Pyrenees into France and besieged Bayonne; and a portion of this Anglo-Portuguese army under Marshal Beresford took Bordeaux, where the Bourbons were proclaimed by the people.

Napoleon again Takes the Field.

After completing his preparations for the campaign, Napoleon summoned the commander and principal officers of the National Guard of Paris to the Tuileries, January 23, 1814, and confided the Empress Maria Louisa and his little son, the King of Rome, to their protection; and two days later he left Paris for Chalons-sur-Marne, where he assumed the command of his army.

Battles of Brienne and La Rothiere.

Blücher and Schwarzenberg united their armies in Champaign, and, after fighting with Napoleon the indecisive battle of Brienne, on the 27th of January, 1814, gained a victory over him in the battle of La Rothiere, on the 1st of February. But the allied armies again separated; and the French Emperor, whose great military talents again shone forth in all their brilliancy, inflicted severe defeats upon Blücher

BLÜCHER AT LAON

From the Painting by H. Eichstädt

at Champaubert, Montmirail, Chateau-Thierry and Vauchamps. He then suddenly fell upon and defeated Schwarzenberg at Montereau, and on the night of the 23d of February the French bombarded Troyes and compelled the allies to evacuate the town. Napoleon afterward unsuccessfully attacked Soissons. Blücher was reinforced by the allied Russian and Prussian army under Bülow and Winzingerode at Soissons, March 3, 1814. Napoleon defeated a Russian detachment under Woronzoff at Craonne, March 7, 1814, but himself was defeated by Blücher at Laon, March 9, 1814. Napoleon afterward attacked Rheims and compelled the Russians to evacuate that famous city; after which he fought the indecisive battle of Arcis-sur-Aube with Prince Schwarzenberg, March 20, 1814. Napoleon said that he dreaded Blücher more than any other of the allied generals, as "the old devil was no sooner beaten than he was ready to fight again." In the South of France the British army under Wellington defeated the French army under Marshal Soult at Orthez, February 27, 1814.

Napoleon's Brilliant Victories.

Battle of Orthez.

In the meantime fresh negotiations for peace had been opened at Chatillon, February 5, 1814; and the allies were so alarmed by their defeats in February that Napoleon might have secured himself on the throne of France had he consented to surrender the countries which he had formerly conquered; but, as the French Emperor increased his demands with every favorable turn of fortune and only gave limited powers to his envoy, Caulaincourt, while he paralyzed the negotiations by ambiguous and unmeaning declarations, the decision was delayed until after Blücher's victory at Laon, when the allies suddenly broke off the negotiations and resolved upon the dethronement of Napoleon.

Unsuccessful Peace Negotiations.

The allies saw that only by a firm agreement among themselves could they secure all the fruits of their victory at Leipsic; and by the Treaty of Chaumont, March 1, 1814, which became the basis of the new States-System of Europe, Great Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia formed a Quadruple Alliance, by which each of those four great powers agreed to keep an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men under arms against the common enemy, and Great Britain promised to furnish each of the other three powers a subsidy of five million pounds sterling for the year 1814.

New Quadruple Alliance.

Napoleon maneuvered in the rear of the allies to intimidate them into a retreat into Germany, whereupon Blücher and Schwarzenberg marched on Paris. A few thousand National Guards resisted the advancing allied armies at Fere-Champenoise. A few days later—March 30, 1814—after a battle in the suburbs of Montmartre, Belleville and Romainville, which covered the capital, Joseph Bonaparte, to whom Napoleon had entrusted the defense of the capital, retired with the Empress Maria Louisa and the regency to Blois. The next day—March

Capture of Paris by the Allies.

31, 1814—Marshals Mortier and Marmont, perceiving the folly of any further resistance, surrendered Paris to the enemy; and on the same day the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia entered that proud capital. A provisional government was now formed, at the head of which was Talleyrand, who had deserted the cause of Napoleon and who now devoted himself to the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of France.

Napoleon's First Abdication.

On the 2d of April, 1814, Napoleon was formally deposed by the French Senate; and, after vainly endeavoring to secure the crown of France to his son, he signed, on the 6th of April, 1814, the unconditional abdication of the thrones of France and Italy. On the 10th of April, 1814, a few days after the abdication of Napoleon, the British army under Wellington won a brilliant victory at Toulouse over the French army commanded by Marshal Soult. A few days after the battle news of the capture of Paris and the fall of Napoleon reached the armies of Wellington and Soult, and hostilities were also suspended in the South of France.

Battle of Toulouse.

Napoleon's Exile to Elba.

On the 11th of April, 1814, Napoleon agreed to a treaty with the allies at Fontainebleau, by which he received the sovereignty of the little island of Elba, in the Mediterranean sea, with the title of Emperor and a pension of two million francs. On the 20th of April, 1814, Napoleon ordered the Imperial Guard to be assembled in the court-yard of Fontainebleau; and, amid the tears of the gallant veterans, he took leave of them with a sad heart. He then started for Elba, where he arrived on the 4th of May, 1814. The French under Davoust held possession of Hamburg for a year, after recapturing the city in May, 1813, practicing the greatest exactions and oppressions, and only surrendering to the allies in May, 1814, after Napoleon's retirement to Elba.

Davoust's Surrender at Hamburg.

First Bourbon Restoration.

The Count of Provence, brother of Louis XVI., returning from his long exile, entered Paris on the 3d of May, 1814, and was received with demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants. He was now seated on the throne of France with the title of Louis XVIII. He was required to govern according to a constitution, called the *Charter*, by which the powers of the king were limited and the rights of the French people defined and secured. On the 30th of May, 1814, a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris between France and the allied powers, by which the boundaries of France were restricted to what they had been in 1792; and the general tranquillity of Europe appeared to be secured. By this First Peace of Paris, France recovered all her foreign possessions except the islands of Tobago and St. Lucia, in the West Indies, and Mauritius, in the Indian Ocean, which were ceded to Great Britain, as was also the island of Malta, in the Mediterranean.

Louis XVIII., A. D. 1814–1824.

First Peace of Paris.

Louis XVIII. and the New French Charter.

After the conclusion of the First Peace of Paris the allied armies evacuated France, and Louis XVIII. was left at liberty to administer the affairs of his kingdom. He opened the new legislative Chambers, June 4, 1814, when he promulgated a new *Charter*, or constitution, slightly differing from the one which he had promised before his entry into Paris. He declared that all the powers of government rightfully belonged to the crown; but that, in consequence of the changed condition of the times, he, following the example of several of his predecessors, resolved to make several changes in the constitution and of his own free will granted this Charter to his subjects. There was to be a Chamber of Peers, whose members were to be nominated by the crown either for life or with hereditary descent, and their number was to be unlimited. The Chamber of Deputies was to consist of representatives chosen by the qualified voters of France, and its members were required to have reached the age of forty and to pay at least one thousand francs annually in taxes. The right of suffrage was restricted to persons thirty years of age and over who should pay an annual tax of three hundred francs. The sole power of proposing laws was vested in the king. The Chambers had the privilege of requesting the king to propose a law upon any subject which they considered necessary, but if he should refuse their request they could not renew it until their next session. The Roman Catholic Church was declared the state-religion of France, but full toleration was granted to all Christian sects.

SECTION XIII.—BOURBON RESTORATION AND THE HUNDRED DAYS (A. D. 1814–1815).

Impolitic Conduct of the Bourbons.

The Bourbons were no sooner restored to the throne of France than they endeavored to reëstablish the state of things which existed before the Revolution, and their imprudent and impolitic conduct excited the Bonapartists and the republicans against them. The tricolor was displaced by the white ensign of the Bourbons, and the memory of the Republic and of the Empire was obliterated as much as possible. The stipulated pension which was to be paid to Napoleon was also withheld. The old aristocracy treated the new nobility with insolence and contempt and drove them from the vicinity of the royal court, and the Legion of Honor was disgraced, being rendered mean and contemptible by the distribution of innumerable crosses to the unworthy. The royal guards were discharged and their places were supplied by well-paid Swiss. The officers of the Grand Army were dismissed with half-pay. The clergy and the Emigrants met with special favor at the royal court, so that they expected a restoration of their lost estates,

titles and feudal privileges. The royal court was under the influence of the king's brother, the Count of Artois, and of the Duchess of Angoulême, daughter of Louis XVI., who had the most bitter hatred for the men of the Revolution and of the Napoleonic period. Thus the Bourbons showed that they "had learned nothing and forgotten nothing."

Plots for Napoleon's Restoration.

The impolitic conduct of the restored Bourbons caused great discontent among the French people, and this conduct of the Bourbons and other causes led to the formation of plots for the restoration of Napoleon to power. The majority of the French people felt deeply the humiliation of living under a king forced upon them by foreign bayonets, and longed for that Emperor under whose banners their armies had so often been led to battle and to victory. The desire for Napoleon's restoration became specially strong when almost a hundred thousand French soldiers who had garrisoned foreign fortresses or had served some time as prisoners of war returned to their own country and diffused their Bonapartist sentiments throughout the land. During the winter of 1813–14 Sir Niel Campbell, the British Resident at Elba, gave intimations of plots for Napoleon's restoration to power in France.

Congress of Vienna.

A Congress composed of plenipotentiaries of the European powers assembled at Vienna, October 2, 1814, for the settlement of European affairs. The most prominent figures in the Congress of Vienna were the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, Prince Metternich of Austria, Talleyrand of France and Lord Castlereagh of Great Britain. This Congress of Vienna was a brilliant assembly, and the princes and plenipotentiaries of the allied powers were there rejoicing over their great victory over the potentate who had so long held Europe in thraldom. There was no end to the balls, banquets and entertainments.

Its Dissensions.

Amid all this show and pomp were bitter passions and angry feelings. Divisions arose in the Congress on the question of the rearrangement of the conquered countries. Prussia demanded the whole of Saxony, and Russia insisted on absorbing the whole of Poland; but both demands were stoutly resisted by the other powers. The armies were placed upon a war footing, and it seemed probable that the powers which had so recently combined to overthrow Napoleon would turn their arms against each other; but when the astounding intelligence that Napoleon had left Elba and had landed on the southern coast of France reached the Congress all divisions were cast aside, and the Congress unanimously agreed to take vigorous measures for the overthrow of the man whose ambition troubled the world.

Napoleon's Return to France.

Encouraged by the discontent of the French people with the rule of the Bourbons, Napoleon left Elba; and on the 1st of March, 1815, he landed at Cannes, near Frejus, on the southern coast of France. He

THE RETURN FROM ELBA

From the Painting by C. G. Steuben

was accompanied by only one thousand men, but he trusted that the prestige of his name and the zealous attachment of the troops whom he had so often led to victory would restore him to power. The troops that had been sent against him joined his standard with the wildest enthusiasm. The tricolor was again displayed everywhere. The citizens of Grenoble opened their gates to him, and Colonel Labedoyère joined him with the garrison of the town. When Napoleon approached, the garrison had orders to fire upon him; but the ex-Emperor advanced alone at the head of his followers and bared his breast, exclaiming: "Is there any of you who will fire at his Emperor!" Thereupon the garrison, seized with one wild impulse of enthusiasm, shouted: "Vive l'Empereur!" The garrison and its commandant then joined Napoleon, whose rapid progress northward thenceforth was one continual triumphal tour.

His Reception at Grenoble.

The Count of Artois, brother of the King Louis XVIII., vainly tried to keep the troops at Lyons firm to their allegiance to their king. They unanimously declared for Napoleon, crying: "Vive l'Empereur!" Marshal Ney, who had been sent against Napoleon and who had sworn that he would bring the ex-Emperor to Paris in chains, joined him with the troops. All the old marshals, except Marmont, Macdonald and Augereau, espoused the cause of Napoleon, who entered Paris on the evening of the 20th of March, 1815, Louis XVIII. having left the city on the morning of the same day. Thus, in the course of three weeks, without one drop of bloodshed, Napoleon was again master of all France. Then began the period historically known as the *Hundred Days*.

His Entry into Lyons and Paris.

His Temporary Restoration.

Louis XVIII. and a few faithful adherents fled to Ghent, while Napoleon again took up his residence in the Tuileries and formed a new Ministry from among his partisans. Clubs were again formed in France, and the songs of the Revolution were again heard. But Napoleon still entertained his dislike for popular movements, thus showing that he also "had learned nothing and forgotten nothing." The liberal party in France resisted his scheme for the reëstablishment of the imperial throne with its splendor and its national nobility, and was dissatisfied with the new constitution which was sworn to at the festival of the Champ de Mai, April 21, 1815, although it was more liberal than the Charter granted by Louis XVIII., and although Napoleon had thus made great sacrifices in order to conciliate the liberal party, which plainly intimated to him that he could reign thenceforth only as a constitutional sovereign. Napoleon promised the allied powers to abide by the conditions of the First Peace of Paris and never again to disturb the tranquillity of Europe, if he or his son were left in possession of the crown of France.

Napoleon and the French Liberals.

Murat's Expulsion from Italy.

On the landing of Napoleon at Cannes, Murat broke off his alliance with Austria and summoned the Italian people to arms against that power. Advancing northward, at the head of the Neapolitan army, Murat was defeated by the Austrians in the battle of Tolentino, on the 23d of May, 1815. He then fled to France, and his Kingdom of Naples reverted to its former sovereign, Ferdinand IV. Napoleon, indignant because of Murat's desertion of his cause in 1814, refused to receive him in Paris.

New Coalition against Napoleon.

The Congress of Vienna, when informed of the events which had just transpired in France, declared that the Emperor Napoleon had placed himself beyond the pale of society, and that, as an enemy and a disturber of the peace of Europe, he had made himself liable to public vengeance. At the same time Russia, Prussia, Austria and Great Britain entered into a treaty by which they agreed to raise an army of six hundred thousand men to crush the man whom no treaties could bind. Napoleon raised a new army of three hundred and seventy thousand men. In the meantime the allies were preparing to invade France from all sides. The British under Wellington and the Prussians under Blücher were concentrating in Belgium. The Austrians were advancing through Northern Italy, and the Russians were rapidly hastening to the theater of action. For the purpose of preventing France from again becoming the seat of war, Napoleon, with one hundred and twenty thousand men, advanced into Belgium, about the middle of June, 1815, with the view of annihilating the armies of Wellington and Blücher.

The Armies in Belgium.

Napoleon's Plans Betrayed by Bourmont.

Napoleon crossed the Belgian frontier, June 14, 1815. His plan was to attack the Prussians, while Marshal Ney with forty-five thousand men was to hold Wellington's army in check and to prevent it from joining Blücher, after which Napoleon would reinforce Ney and crush the British army. His plan was betrayed to Blücher by the French General Bourmont, who deserted to the Prussians with his staff on that very night, June 14, 1815.

Battles of Ligny and Quatre-Bras.

On the 15th of June, 1815, Napoleon assaulted Charleroi and compelled the Prussians under Ziethen to evacuate the town. At about noon on the 16th, June, 1815, Napoleon, at the head of eighty thousand men, attacked sixty thousand Prussians under Blücher at Ligny; while at the same time Marshal Ney with thirty thousand assailed the British under Wellington at Quatre-Bras. The battle of Ligny was long and bloody and ended in the defeat of the Prussians, who retired with the loss of fifteen thousand men and left the field in possession of Napoleon, who lost about ten thousand men. After a desperate engagement at Quatre-Bras, in which the gallant Duke William of Brunswick was mortally wounded, the British were victorious, and Ney was obliged to retire from the bloody field with the loss of four thousand men. Napoleon's

victory at Ligny rendered the British victory at Quatre-Bras useless; and on the following day, June 17, 1815, Wellington fell back to the village of Waterloo, about nine miles from Brussels.

Napoleon and Wellington at Waterloo.

The next morning, June 18, 1815, which was Sunday, was rainy and tempestuous. On that morning Napoleon ascended the opposite hill of La Belle Alliance, and for the first time he saw Wellington's army. Napoleon had eighty thousand men, and Wellington had seventy thousand. The chateau of Hougoumont and the farm-house of La Haye Sainte were strongly garrisoned with British troops. Napoleon had detached Marshal Grouchy with thirty thousand men to hang upon the rear of the beaten Prussians at Wavre, while he himself assailed the British under Wellington at Waterloo.

Battle of Waterloo.

The great battle of Waterloo began at about noon, when the French opened a heavy artillery fire on the British lines and assaulted Hougoumont, but were repulsed. A concentrated attack on the British right also failed. The French cuirassiers afterward vainly attempted to break the British center, but they drove back the British troops who had followed them. La Haye Sainte was captured and lost by the French infantry. The French cuirassiers next made a furious assault on the British right, only to be disastrously repulsed. Three tremendous assaults had already failed to break the British lines, when, at seven in the evening, Marshal Ney, by direction of Napoleon, led the Imperial Guard in a furious charge upon the British troops, while in the meantime the British line was fiercely cannonaded. The Imperial Guards reeled before the heavy musketry fire which the British opened upon them; and Wellington, observing the confusion, ordered a bayonet charge, and the result was the complete route of these favorite veterans of Napoleon. The struggle on the height of Mont Sainte Jean was terrible; and General Cambronne exclaimed: "The Guard dies; it never surrenders!" These words were held in grateful remembrance by the French nation. Upon seeing the rout of his favorite veterans, Napoleon exclaimed: "All is lost!" Pale and confused, he turned his horse and galloped from the fatal field, leaving his army in charge of Marshal Soult, and hastened to Paris.

All the French Assaults Repulsed.

Rout of Napoleon's Imperial Guard.

Blucher's Arrival.

Marshal Grouchy failed to hold Blücher in check, nor did he come to Napoleon's rescue. Upon the repulse of the Imperial Guard, Blücher, with fifty thousand Prussians, came to the assistance of Wellington, who immediately assumed the offensive. The shattered remnants of the French army fled in confusion, and were pursued by the Prussians; the British, fatigued by the long and fierce contest, resting for the night on the field. The British had won a great victory, but at the cost of fifteen thousand men in killed and wounded. Among the killed was the gallant Sir Thomas Picton. Sir Henry Hardinge,

Napoleon's Utter Defeat.

afterward Governor-General of British India, lost an arm. The French had lost forty thousand men and all their cannon.

Stanza from Byron's Poem.

The following stanza is from Byron's poem on the battle of Waterloo:

"Stop! for thy tread is on an empire's dust;
An earthquake's spoil is sepulchered below;
Is the spot marked with no colossal bust?
Nor column trophied for triumphal show?
None; but the mortal's truth tells simpler so.
As the ground was before, thus let it be.
How that red rain hath made the harvest grow!
And is this all the world has gained by thee,
Thou first and last of fields, king-making victory."

Napoleon's Second Abdication.

Napoleon arrived in Paris two days after the battle of Waterloo, June 20, 1815, and brought the tidings of his own disastrous and decisive defeat, thus throwing the proud capital into a state of the wildest consternation. After some hesitation, Napoleon yielded to the proposal of the Chambers in Paris and abdicated the throne of France in favor of his son; whereupon a provisional government, under the direction of Fouché, was formed. After the battle of Waterloo the British and Prussian armies marched upon Paris, which was surrendered by Fouché to Wellington and Blücher on condition that no individual was to be punished for his political opinions. King Louis XVIII, reentered his capital on the 8th of July, 1815, and was again seated on the throne of France.

Second Capture of Paris.

Second Bourbon Restoration.

Napoleon's Flight and Capture.

In the meantime Napoleon had fled to Rochefort with the intention of escaping to America, but he found the harbor closely guarded by British war-vessels. Thus foiled, Napoleon embraced the determination of throwing himself upon the generosity of the British nation; and accordingly, on the 15th of July, 1815, he went on board the British frigate *Bellerophon* and surrendered himself a prisoner to Captain Maitland, the commander of the vessel, who took him to the coast of England, but refused to allow him to land or to have any communication with the people on the shore. In a letter to the Prince Regent of Great Britain, afterward King George IV., Napoleon compared himself to Themistocles seeking the protection of Admetus; but the "First Gentleman of Europe," as the Prince Regent was called, did not compare favorably with the Molossian chief. The statesmen who then wielded the destinies of Great Britain—Lord Liverpool, Castlereagh and their colleagues—had no compassion for fallen greatness; and, after some delay, the illustrious prisoner was informed that the allied monarchs had resolved to banish him to the small rocky island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean, where he was to be kept a close prisoner for the rest of his life. Napoleon vainly protested; and on the 18th of October, 1815, he arrived at the place of his banishment.

His Exile to St. Helena.

AFTER WATERLOO—"SAUVE QUI PEUT"

From the Painting by A. C. Gow

Proscription of His Adherents.

A proscription of the family and the adherents of Napoleon followed the second abdication of the Emperor and the Second Restoration of the Bourbons. All the members of Napoleon's family, all the marshals and statesmen who had adhered to Napoleon during the Hundred Days, among whom was Marshal Soult, and all the regicides who had voted for the death of Louis XVI. were banished, among them being Fouché, Carnot, Sieyès and Cambacéres, most of them residing at Brussels. Fouché was at first allowed by the Bourbons to retain his office of Minister of Police; but, as he was one of the regicides, he was obliged to resign and go into exile.

Execution of Ney and Labedoyere.

In violation of the terms of the second capitulation of Paris, Marshal Ney and Colonel Labedoyère were condemned to death by the Court of Peers and shot for treason, in joining Napoleon on his return from Elba with the troops with which they had been sent against him. They died bravely, and Ney himself gave the command to fire. Colonel Lavalette, who, as Director of the Post, had also exerted himself for Napoleon's restoration, was condemned to death, but escaped from prison through the aid of his wife.

Murat's Execution.

Murat, after remaining for some time in Southern France, sailed for Corsica, whence he made a descent on the coast of Southern Italy for the purpose of recovering his lost Kingdom of Naples; but he was taken prisoner, and was shot in accordance with the sentence of a court-martial, October 15, 1815.

Second Peace of Paris.

The battle of Waterloo put an end to the long wars which the French Revolution and the ambition of Napoleon had kindled and which had convulsed Europe for a period of twenty-three years. On the 20th of November, 1815, the Second Peace of Paris was concluded between France and the allied powers, by which the boundaries of France were limited to what they had been in 1790; France was required to pay seven hundred million francs for the expenses of the war; the works of art and literature which the French had taken from other nations were to be restored to their rightful owners; and an allied army of one hundred and fifty thousand men was to garrison the frontier fortresses of France for five years, for the purpose of insuring peace by putting down any attempted rising of the French people. The military power of France was thoroughly broken, her pride was lowered and her humiliation was complete. The Parisians mournfully parted with the Italian statues and paintings which adorned the Louvre—the trophies of a hundred victories.

France's Humiliation.

Napoleon's Views of Great Britain.

Napoleon said that Great Britain, with a small standing army, was more powerful than the other European powers, with their large standing armies, because of her money, which enabled her to subsidize her allies. He also regarded her as the most powerful of his enemies on account of her political freedom, especially her free press, saying that

if he had allowed freedom of the press in France his power would not have lasted three days. He ascribed his overthrow entirely to Great Britain, and said that if he could have led a British army instead of the French army he never would have been overthrown and could have conquered the universe. Europe, the United States and the world were saved from his dominion only by the might of Great Britain, as he had announced his intention to bring the whole world under his government when he invaded Russia in 1812.

Views on Napoleon's Exile.

The action of the British government in banishing Napoleon to so remote and lonely a retreat has been condemned as an act of unwarrantable cruelty; but it must be remembered that such a proceeding was an act of political necessity, because the peace of Europe was never secure against his ambition while he remained in or near Europe, as was fully demonstrated by his return from Elba. Had he been left in or near Europe he might have been able at any time, through the aid and support of his partisans, to recover his former power in France and to again disturb the peace of Europe. Thus Great Britain, in the interests of her own independence and the independence of Europe, was obliged to resort to so harsh a measure. There were many in Great Britain who thought that their government should have turned Napoleon over to the restored Bourbons to be shot in the same way as he had caused the Duke d'Enghien to be shot.

His Life in St. Helena.

The illustrious exile lived at St. Helena like a chained Promêtheus, separated from his friends, in an unhealthy climate, and under the rigid guardianship of the brutal governor, Sir Hudson Lowe, whom the exiled ex-Emperor called "an executioner sent to assassinate him, a man wholly without a heart and merely capable of discharging the office and duties of a jailor." Among the few friends who shared Napoleon's exile were General Bertrand and his family, Montholon and Las Cases. Grief at his fall, want of his accustomed activity and irritation at the humiliating treatment accorded him hastened him to a premature end; and, after five and a half years of unhappy exile, he found that rest in the grave to which he had been a stranger during his stormy and eventful life, the direct cause of his death being cancer of the stomach.

His Death.

The renowned captive died at St. Helena at the age of fifty-two, on the night of May 5, 1821, while a terrible storm was raging on the rocky islet—fitting time for the soul of him whose life had been so stormy to take its departure. In his dying dreams he fancied himself once more at the head of his armies, and his last words were: "*Tête d'armée!*"—"Head of the army!"

Poem Thereon.

The following is a poem by the American poet Isaac McLellan on the death of Napoleon:

"Wild was the night—yet a wilder night
Hung round the soldier's pillow.
In his bosom there waged a fiercer fight
Than the fight on the wrathful billow.

"A few fond mourners were kneeling by,
The few that his stern heart cherished.
They knew, by his glazed and unearthly eye,
That life had nearly perished.

"They knew, by his awful and kingly look,
By the order hastily spoken,
That he dreamed of days when the nations shook,
And the nation's hosts were broken.

"He dreamed that the Frenchman's sword still slew,
And triumphed the Frenchman's eagle.
And the struggling Austrian fled anew,
Like the hare before the beagle.

"The bearded Russian he scourged again;
The Prussian's camp was routed;
And again on the hills of haughty Spain
His mighty armies shouted.

"Over Egypt's sands, over Alpine snows,
At the Pyramids, at the mountain,
Where the wave of the lordly Danube flows,
And by the Italian fountain.

"On snowy cliffs, where mountain streams
Dash by the Switzer's dwelling,
He led again, in his dying dreams,
His hosts the broad earth quelling.

"Again Marengo's field was won,
And Jena's bloody battle.
Again the world was overrun,
Made pale at his cannons' rattle.

"He died at the close of that darksome day,
A day that shall live in story.
In the rocky land they placed his clay,
And left him alone with his glory."

His Brilliant Career and Tragic Fall.

Such was the mournful end of Napoleon Bonaparte's career—the most brilliant and extraordinary career of ambition and conquest in the world's history. This wonderful man, by his remarkable military talents and his force of character, had risen from the condition of an unknown and friendless youth to be the greatest warrior of all time and the arbiter of the destinies of nations; and for a time Europe was at his mercy. His melancholy fall was a just retribution for the eight million human lives sacrificed through his selfish ambition. Never was ambition so brilliant in its success, so tragic in its fall.

His Selfishness.

This marvelous man drained the life-blood of France by reckless conscriptions, thus leading two millions of Frenchmen to premature deaths. He subverted the freedom of the press and of opinion. He involved the French nation in two destructive wars by a tyrannical commercial policy arising from his resentment against Great Britain. He heartlessly prosecuted his own schemes at the sacrifice of the life, liberty and happiness of other individuals and nations.

Comparison with a Gambler.

Napoleon was the heir of the French Revolution, and he knew how to profit by it without sharing its senseless and cruel fanaticism. He held human nature in contempt and regarded most men as simply ciphers whose value was represented by the services which he could cause them to render to himself. He loved war as a professional gambler loves the game in which his skill is preëminent; and, like the professional gambler, he risked daily what he had gained the day before, and therefore he had only himself to blame for almost all of his misfortunes.

Byron's Description.

The English poet Lord Byron described Napoleon as a mighty gambler,

> "Whose game was empires, and whose stakes were thrones,
> Whose table earth, whose dice were human bones."

Blight on His Memory.

His true titles to glory were the restoration of order in France and the innumerable creations of his genius; but the comparison of the good which he did with what he might have accomplished, had he been actuated by purely-unselfish and patriotic impulses and considerations, will always cast a heavy blight upon his memory. His ambition twice exposed his country to invasion by foreign foes; and the calamities which followed those invasions, and the blood of two million Frenchmen shed in innumerable conflicts during his stormy career, have shown France the heavy price of military glory.

His Mission.

But it is doubtful whether he was more selfish or only more able than the hereditary sovereigns whom his long spell of success and his energetic movements struck with terror. When he appeared upon the stage of European affairs Europe was encumbered with worn-out forms, the remnants of past institutions; and his mission appears to have been to prepare the way for new and better systems.

An Unconscious Instrument of Good.

In the course of his triumphant marches through Europe, at the head of kings and princes and powerful chiefs, all sprung from the ranks of the people, Napoleon diffused certain ideas of equal political rights which have since become the basis of political freedom. Thus, though his views and aims were selfish and personal, he was the instrument for the achievement of much good which he did not intend to accomplish. Though his melancholy fall was attributable to his faults and errors,

his brilliant and extraordinary success was equally the natural result of profound knowledge, diligent industry and irresistible will.

His Wonderful Influence.

The spell of this wonderful man was so great that he still filled the world with the echoes of his name at a distance of almost four thousand miles from Europe. His great image loomed afar, from his rocky islet abode in the South Atlantic, an object of terror to his foes and of hope to his friends and adherents. His death hurried some of his partisans into rash and desperate enterprises, while it released his enemies from a salutary fear and left them free to devote themselves less prudently and less reservedly to their reactionary and disastrous inclinations.

His Remains Conveyed to Paris.

After Napoleon's remains had rested nineteen years in their lonely tomb at St. Helena a more generous spirit animated the British government, and the fallen Emperor's remains were permitted to be conveyed by a guard of honor to Paris. The remains were exhumed under the direction of the British authorities in St. Helena, October 15, 1840, and were placed in an additional leaden coffin inclosed in an ebony sarcophagus sent for the purpose by the French government. The French squadron conveying the remains sailed from St. Helena, October 18, 1840, for Havre, whence they were conveyed up the Seine to Paris, where they arrived December 15, 1840, and were interred in the Hôtel des Invalides, in the presence of thousands of Napoleon's old veterans and a vast concourse of people, who regarded the mortal remains of the illustrious dead with an affection and reverence almost amounting to adoration. A monument in the Hôtel des Invalides now marks the resting-place of all that was mortal of Napoleon Bonaparte.

SECTION XIV.—EIGHTEENTH CENTURY CIVILIZATION.

Results of French Philosophy and the American and French Revolutions.

The eighteenth century was a period of remarkable changes—a time when old ideas and institutions were swept away and when democratic ideas came to the front. These ideas were first promulgated in France, where a number of distinguished philosophical writers arose about the middle of the eighteenth century to question all existing beliefs and things. These writers were Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the *Encyclopedists*. These writers attacked Church and State with keen and unanswerable arguments and gave vent to a widely-felt desire for the "inalienable rights of man." These ideas first found practical expression in the efforts of princes and ministers at reform in Church and State, and afterward in the establishment of the democratic republic of the United States of America, whose people, mostly of the liberty-loving Anglo-Saxon race, by experience were the best prepared for the adoption and practical application of the principles

of self-government. The influence of the French philosophers and writers is seen in the American Declaration of Independence, in which are embodied many of the ideas promulgated in Rousseau's *Contrat Social*, "Social Contract," in which the rights of man are advocated with great force. While France in her ideas influenced America, America, as a practical illustration of the sort of government advocated by Rousseau, in turn influenced France, whose armies and fleets had aided to establish the young American Republic. The result was the French Revolution—that gigantic political maelstrom which swept away in one tremendous torrent the remains of mediæval feudalism and the doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The influence of the French Revolution was felt in every European nation, effecting great political and social changes and tending to elevate the oppressed masses. The literature of the eighteenth century was the literature of wit, and many old customs and institutions were laughed out of existence. The general elevation of the European masses was also promoted by numerous mechanical inventions and scientific discoveries.

Scientific Discoveries.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century wonderful progress was made in science; and it was at that time that chemistry began to take rank as a science, in consequence of the multitude of discoveries in that field. The following are the leading scientists and their discoveries.

Great Physicians

Boerhaave (1668–1738) was a great physician of Holland. Haller (1708–1777)—a distinguished Swiss physician—was called the "Father of Physiology." William and John Hunter (1718–1783 and 1728–1793)—brothers and natives of Scotland—were distinguished anatomists and surgeons. Mesmer (1734–1815)—a physician of Vienna—discovered animal magnetism, or *mesmerism*, in 1776. Edward Jenner (1749–1822)—an English physician—made the first experiment in vaccination in 1796.

Great Naturalists.

Buffon (1701–1788)—a great French naturalist—wrote *Histoire Naturelle*. Linnæus (1707–1778)—the great Swedish botanist—by his simple and systematic classification of botanical discoveries, became the founder of the science of botany. Werner (1750–1817)—a German—founded the sciences of geology and mineralogy.

Great Chemists.

Joseph Priestley (1733–1804)—a great English chemist and writer and a Unitarian divine—discovered oxygen gas and more new substances than any other chemist. His house and library were destroyed by a mob because of his sympathy with the French Revolution, and he spent the last ten years of his life in America and died at Northumberland, Pennsylvania. Lavoisier (1743–1794)—a distinguished French chemist—arranged the science of chemistry by systematizing the various discoveries. He was guillotined during the French Revolution.

SCIENTISTS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

Benjamin Franklin.

Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790)—a great American statesman and natural philosopher—made investigations which prepared the way for the science of electricity. He was born in Boston, and came to Philadelphia in 1726, where he established a newspaper in 1728. His prudence, energy and talents soon made him a leading man in Philadelphia. In 1744 he proposed a plan of association for the defense of Pennsylvania. At the Colonial Congress at Albany in 1754 he proposed a plan for the union of the Anglo-American colonies. In the meantime he had commenced his electrical experiments, making several discoveries, chief of which was the identity of electricity and lightning; and he at once applied it to the erection of iron conductors for the protection of buildings from lightning, thus inventing lightning-rods. In 1757 he was sent to England as agent for Pennsylvania, and in 1765 he was examined before the House of Commons concerning the Stamp Act. In 1775 he returned home and was elected a delegate from Pennsylvania in the Second Continental Congress, having been in the meantime deprived of his office of Postmaster-General of the Anglo-American colonies by Lord North's Ministry. He was a member of the Committee to draft the Declaration of Independence and was a signer of that immortal document. In 1778 he was sent as American commissioner to France, where he signed the treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, between France and the United States, which led to war between France and Great Britain. In 1783 he was one of the American commissioners who signed the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain at Paris, and in 1785 he returned home and was chosen President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania. His last public acts were performed in the capacity of a delegate from Pennsylvania in the National Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, in 1787.

Other Great Natural Philosophers.

Galvani (1737–1798) and Volta (1745–1827)—two Italian philosophers—discovered what are known as *galvanic* and *voltaic* electricity. Joseph Black (1728–1799)—a Scotch chemist—discovered carbonic acid gas. Henry Cavendish (1731–1810)—an English chemist—discovered the constituent parts of air and water. John Dalton (1766–1844)—an English chemist and physicist—discovered the atomic theory.

Great Mathematicians and Astronomers.

Euler (1707–1783)—a celebrated Swiss mathematician—flourished at Berlin and St. Petersburg and died in the latter city. Sir William Herschel (1738–1822)—a German by birth, but who spent most of his life in England, where he flourished as a distinguished astronomer—discovered the planet Uranus in 1781 and resolved the Milky-Way into distinct and separate parts. His sister, Caroline Herschel, and his son, Sir John Herschel, were great astronomers. Laplace (1749–1827)—

the great French mathematician and astronomer—in his great work, *Mécanique Céleste*, treated of mathematical astronomy. LEGENDRE (1752–1833)—also a great French mathematician—wrote *Elements de Geometrie.*

Great Inventors and Their Inventions.

A number of great inventions contributed to the welfare of the masses, most of which were made in England. Navigable canals began to be made, and machinery was applied to the spinning and weaving of cotton. JAMES BRINDLEY (1716–1772)—an Englishman—was the founder of canal navigation. JAMES HARGREAVES (1730–1778)—an Englishman—invented the carding-machine and the spinning-jenny in 1765. SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT (1732–1792)—an Englishman—invented the cotton spinning-frame in 1768. CROMPTON (1753–1827)—an Englishman—invented the mule-jenny for the spinning of yarn, in 1775. JACQUARD (1752–1834)—a native of France—invented the loom for figured weaving. JOSIAH WEDGWOOD (1731–1795)—an Englishman—invented "Queen's ware," and thus improved the porcelain manufacture. JAMES WATT (1736–1819)—a Scotchman—improved the steam-engine, for which he obtained a patent in 1769 and which he applied to machinery. ELI WHITNEY (1765–1825)—a native of Massachusetts—invented the cotton-gin in 1793.

Minor Inventions.

There were many minor inventions. The piano-forte was invented at Dresden in 1717. Caoutchouc, or India-rubber, was brought to Europe from South America in 1730. Stereotyping was first practiced by WILLIAM GED, of Edinburgh. The chronometer, or clock to keep perfect solar, or sidereal time, to determine the longitude of ships at sea, was constructed by JOHN HARRISON, an Englishman, in 1742. The hydraulic press was invented by BRAMAH, an Englishman, in 1786. Gas-lights were first used by MURDOCH in Cornwall in 1792. Lithography was invented in Germany in 1796. An improved system of stenography, or short-hand writing, was introduced. FAHRENHEIT (1690–1736)—a Hollander—invented the thermometer bearing his name. JOHN SMEATON (1724–1792)—an English civil engineer—constructed the *Eddystone Lighthouse.*

Philosophers and Metaphysicians.

EMANUEL SWEDENBORG (1688–1772)—a great Swedish scientist, philosopher, and writer on apocalyptic subjects—believed himself to have received divine revelations and founded the *New Christian Church.* JONATHAN EDWARDS (1703–1758)—a great American divine and metaphsician—wrote *An Inquiry into the Freedom of the Will.* ADAM SMITH (1723–1790)—a Scotchman and professor in Glasgow University—by his great work, *The Wealth of Nations,* founded the science of political economy. THOMAS REID (1710–1796)—a great Scotch metaphysician and philosopher—wrote *An Inquiry into the Human Mind.* IMMANUEL KANT (1724–1804)—a great German

philosopher and metaphysician, partly of Scotch descent, who lived all his life at Königsberg—by his *Critique of Pure Reason* laid the foundation of all subsequent German metaphysics.

England's Augustan Age.

The Age of Queen Anne—known as the *Augustan Age of English Literature*—was adorned with the names of Pope, Addison, Steele, Swift, Defoe, Bolingbroke and others, who shed immortal luster upon English literature during the first half of the eighteenth century.

Six Great English Writers.

Alexander Pope (1688–1744)—the greatest English poet during the first half of the eighteenth century—wrote poetry at twelve; and his chief works are his *Essay on Man, Rape of the Lock* and a *Translation of Homer.* Joseph Addison (1672–1719)—a noted political writer—was the author of the *Spectator* and the *Tatler* and also wrote *Cato, A Letter from Italy,* etc. Sir Richard Steele (1671–1729) aided Addison in writing the *Tatler* and the *Spectator.* Jonathan Swift (1667–1745)—a great Irish-English political writer and satirist—wrote *Gulliver's Travels* and died insane. Daniel Defoe (1661–1731)—an eminent English novelist and political writer—was the author of *Robinson Crusoe.* Lord Bolingbroke (1678–1751)—the great Tory statesman during Queen Anne's reign—was an eminent political and infidel writer.

Other British Writers.

Other poets were the Scotch poet James Thomson (1700–1748), author of *The Seasons;* the English poet Edward Young (1684–1765), author of *Night Thoughts;* and the fine English lyric poet William Collins (1720–1756), who died insane. Among English divines was Isaac Watts (1674–1748), the great hymnist.

Dr. Johnson's Age.

The age of Dr. Samuel Johnson—comprising the last half of the eighteenth century—produced many great English novelists, dramatists, historians and poets, who made the last half of the eighteenth century glorious by their immortal literary productions.

Two Great English Writers.

Samuel Johnson (1709–1784)—a great English writer—was the author of *The Lives of the Poets, Rasselas, The Rambler* and an *English Dictionary.* Edmund Burke (1730–1797)—a famous Irish-English orator and statesman—wrote *An Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful* and *Reflections on the French Revolution.*

Great English Dramatists.

David Garrick (1716–1779) was a celebrated English dramatist and actor. Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751–1816) was a great Irish-English statesman, Parliamentary orator, lawyer and dramatist.

Five Great English Novelists.

Samuel Richardson (1689–1761)—a celebrated English novelist—wrote *Pamela, Clarissa Harlowe* and *Sir Charles Grandison.* Henry Fielding (1707–1754)—a great English novelist—wrote *Tom Jones, Jonathan Wilde* and *Joseph Andrews.* Tobias George Smollett (1721–1771)—also a noted English novelist—wrote *Roderick Random, Peregrine Pickle* and *Humphrey Clinker.* Laurence Sterne (1713–

1768)—likewise a great English novelist and humorist—wrote *Tristram Shandy* and *The Sentimental Journey.* Miss Hannah More (1745–1833) wrote dramas and novels, one of the best-known of her works being *The Shepherd of Salisbury Plain.*

Three Great British Historians.

Edward Gibbon (1737–1794)—one of the greatest English historians—wrote *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.* David Hume (1711–1776)—a great Scotch philosopher and historian—wrote a *History of England,* a *Treatise on Human Nature* and *Essays.* William Robertson (1721–1793)—a famous Scotch historian—wrote a *History of Scotland, History of America* and *History of Charles V. of Germany.*

Four Great British Poets.

Oliver Goldsmith (1728–1774) was a brilliant Irish-English poet, historian and novelist, whose chief poems were *The Traveler* and *The Deserted Village,* whose great novel was *The Vicar of Wakefield* and whose other works were *History of England, History of Greece, History of Rome, History of Animated Nature,* etc. Thomas Gray (1716–1771) was the greatest lyric poet of England, and his most celebrated poem was his *Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard.* William Cowper (1731–1800)—a famous English poet—wrote *The Task, John Gilpin* and other poems and died insane. Robert Burns (1759–1796)—Scotland's celebrated lyric poet, "the Ayrshire plowman"—wrote *Highland Mary, Bonny Doon, Auld Lang Syne, Tam o'Shanter* and many other songs and poems.

Other British Writers.

Other English poets of this period were Thomas Chatterton (1752–1770), the boy poet, who committed suicide at the age of seventeen; Mark Akenside (1721–1770), author of *Pleasures of the Imagination;* and James Beattie (1736–1803), a noted Scotch poet. Other noted English writers were Sir William Blackstone (1723–1780), whose great work on the *Laws of England* is the standard textbook of the legal profession in England and America; Sir William Jones (1746–1794), the great philologist and orientalist; Horace Walpole (1717–1797), son of the great statesman Sir Robert Walpole, and author of *Castle of Otranto* and other works; and Thomas Paine (1736–1809), the great political and infidel writer, who by his pen aided the cause of liberty in the American and French Revolutions, and who lived in America during the American Revolution and was a member of the French National Convention during the French Revolution, and died in New York. Paine's works were *The Crisis, Common Sense, Rights of Man* and *Age of Reason.*

Two French Writers.

Rollin (1661–1741)—a famous French historian—wrote an *Ancient History.* Le Sage (1668–1747)—a great French novelist—wrote *Gil Blas.* These two writers cast immortal luster upon French literature during the first half of the eighteenth century.

Three Great French Philosophical Writers.

Montesquieu (1689–1755)—a great French writer, whose chief works were *Considerations sur les causes de la grandeur et de la décadence des Romains; De l'Esprit des Lois*, "On the Spirit of Laws"; and *Lettres Persanes*, "Persian Letters"—was a skeptic in religion. Voltaire (1694–1778)—a great French satirist and infidel writer—wrote the *Henriade*, the only French epic poem, and several historical works, such as the *Age of Louis XIV.* and *History of Charles XII.* Rousseau (1712–1778)—a noted French writer and son of a Geneva watchmaker—was a skeptic in religion and a writer of many operas and plays, and was obliged to leave France for publishing his *Contrat Social*, "Social Contract," in which he advocated the equal rights of all men.

Five Great French Encyclopedists.

D'Alembert (1717–1783) was a great scientist and principal contributor to the *Encyclopedia*. Diderot (1713–1784) was a poet, philosopher and Encyclopedist. Condorcet (1743–1794) was a metaphysician and Encyclopedist, and was guillotined during the Reign of Terror. Condillac (1715–1780) was a metaphysician and writer for the *Encyclopedia*. Helvetius (1715–1771) was a philosopher and writer for the *Encyclopedia*.

Other French Writers.

There were other noted French writers of this period. Crebillon (1674–1762) was a tragic poet. Andre Chenier (1762–1792) was the poet of the French Revolution and was guillotined at the age of thirty. Malesherbes (1721–1794), the great lawyer and statesman, who was guillotined during the Reign of Terror, was the author of *Thoughts and Maxims*. Beaumarchais (1732–1799) was the author of *The Marriage of Figaro* and *The Barber of Seville*, two famous comedies. Bernardin St. Pierre (1737–1814), a famous novelist, wrote *Paul and Virginia*. Rouget de l'Isle (1760–1836)—French poet—wrote the *Marseillaise*. Volney (1757–1820) was a famous French historical and political writer, one of his greatest works being *Researches into Ancient History*. Madame Roland (1754–1793) was an enthusiast for liberty and author of *Memoires*, and was guillotined during the Reign of Terror. Madame de Stael (1766–1817)—daughter of Necker—wrote *Corinne*. Madame de Genlis (1746–1830) was a novelist and writer of juvenile works.

Two German Writers.

Mosheim (1694–1755) was a great German church historian. Winckelmann (1717–1768) was a great German archæologist. These two eminent Germans were great pioneers of German literature in the eighteenth century.

Six Great German Poets.

Klopstock (1724–1803)—a celebrated German poet—wrote tragedies and lyrics, and his chief work is the *Messiah*. Lessing (1729–1781)—a distinguished German critic and dramatic poet—wrote *Laocoön, Emilia Galotti, Nathan the Wise, Minna von Barnhelm* and

other works. Goethe (1749–1842)—the greatest of German poets—wrote *Werther, Wilhelm Meister* and *Faust*. Schiller (1759–1805)—one of the most illustrious of German poets—wrote dramas, such as *William Tell* and *Wallenstein*, and also a *History of the Thirty Years' War*. Herder (1744–1803) was a renowned German poet, critic and philosopher. Wieland (1733–1813) was a famous German poet and novelist.

Other European Writers.

Lavater (1741–1801) was a great Swiss philosopher and writer on physiognomy. Lomonosoff (1711–1765) was a Russian poet and grammarian. Metastasio (1698–1782) was an Italian poet and musical composer, author of operas, oratorios and sonnets. Alfieri (1749–1803) was the greatest of modern Italian poets.

Four Great German Musical Composers.

John Sebastian Bach (1685–1750) was a great German musical composer—the greatest that ever lived. Handel (1684–1759)—an illustrious German musical composer—lived most of his life in England; and his leading oratorios were *Israel in Egypt, the Messiah* and *Judas Maccabæus*. Haydn (1732–1809)—a great German musical composer—wrote many oratorios, chief of which was *The Creation*. Mozart (1756–1792)—also a distinguished German musical composer—wrote *Don Giovanni* and the *Requiem*.

Five Great English Painters.

William Hogarth (1697–1764) was a renowned English painter and engraver. Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723–1792)—the first President of the Royal Academy—was a great English portrait and landscape painter. Thomas Gainsborough (1727–1788) was a great English landscape painter. John Singleton Copley (1737–1815) was born in Boston, Massachusetts, but flourished in England as a great historical painter, and was the father of the great English statesman Lord Lyndhurst, one of the British Prime Ministers in the early part of Queen Victoria's reign. Benjamin West (1738–1820)—born in Chester county, Pennsylvania, but who lived most of his life in England—was a great historical painter and also President of the Royal Academy.

Italian Sculptor.

Antonio Canova (1757–1822)—a great Italian sculptor—was celebrated for his many beautiful statues.

Two Great English Philanthropists.

During the latter part of the eighteenth century several great philanthropists of England distinguished themselves for their unselfish devotion to the cause of humanity. John Howard (1726–1790) was famous for his labors in the cause of prison reform. Sir Samuel Romilly (1757–1818) labored to improve the English penal laws.

The Wesleys and Rise of Methodism in England and America.

John and Charles Wesley (1703–1791 and 1708–1788)—brothers and English clergmen of the Established Church—were distinguished as the founders of *Methodism*, the greatest religious movement since the Reformation. John Wesley was a preacher and writer, who maintained the doctrine that man, by his own free will and desire,

may obtain salvation—a doctrine directly opposed to the creeds of St. Augustine and John Calvin. Charles Wesley was a great preacher and hymnist. GEORGE WHITEFIELD (1714–1770)—one of the greatest of English pulpit orators and Methodist divines—adhered to the Augustinian and Calvinistic creed of predestination. Methodism—which arose in England about the middle of the eighteenth century—made rapid progress in England and among the English colonists in America, and is now the leading denomination in the United States of America.

Methodism as a Puritan Outgrowth.

Methodism was the last outgrowth of the Puritan movement of the preceding century; and the Wesleys and Whitefield aimed at a reform of the Episcopal State Church of England and of English society in general by freeing both from the corruption then so prevalent, and at substituting for these national evils a purer and more earnest Christian spirit. The Wesleys did not desire a separation from the Established Church, but they were gradually forced to a total separation by the logic of circumstances.

Low State of Morals in England.

Said Montesquieu on his visit to England: "Every one laughs if one talks of religion." Most of the prominent English statesmen of the time were unbelievers in any form of Christianity and were distinguished for the immorality and grossness of their lives. Drunkenness and foul talk were considered no discredit to Sir Robert Walpole. A later Prime Minister, the Duke of Grafton, was in the habit of appearing with his mistress at the theater. Purity and fidelity to the marriage-vow were now sneered out of fashion; and the celebrated Lord Chesterfield, in his letters to his son, instructed him in the art of seduction as part of a polite education. Profanity was general among all classes and among both sexes. Judges swore on the bench. The introduction of gin gave a new impetus to drunkenness, and in the streets of London the gin-shops invited every passer-by to "come in and get drunk for a penny and dead drunk for twopence." Such was the contrast with the Puritan England of a century before.

Ignorance, Vice and Crime in England.

The lower classes were ignorant and brutal. The only schools were the grammar schools founded by Edward VI. and Elizabeth. The rural peasantry, fast reduced to pauperism by the abuse of the poor laws, had no moral or religious training. Said Hannah More: "We only saw but one Bible in the parish of Cheddar, and that was used to prop a flower-pot." There was no effective police in the English towns; and in great riots the mobs of London or Birmingham burned houses, broke open prisons and plundered with perfect impunity. The criminal classes increased in number and boldness, in spite of the laws which made it a capital crime to cut down a cherry-tree and which hung twenty young thieves in a morning in front of Newgate.

Immorality of the English Clergy.

Archdeacon Paley exhorted the young clergy of the diocese of Carlisle "not to get drunk or to frequent ale-houses, * * * to avoid profligate habits, not to be seen at drunken feasts or barbarous diversions"; * * * and in reading the service, "not to perform it with reluctance or quit it with symptoms of delight." Dr. Knox, head-master of Tunbridge School, said: "The public have remarked with indignation that some of the most distinguished coxcombs, drunkards, debauchees and gamesters who figure at watering-places are young men of the sacerdotal order." Arthur Young wrote that "the French clergy are more decent than the English. They are not poachers or fox-hunters who spend the morning with the hounds, the evening at the bottle, and reel from drunkenness into the pulpit."

The Wesleyan Revival.

But while the higher and lower classes were steeped in vice and crime, the great middle classes lived on in their old piety unchanged; and it was from that class that the Wesleyan revival burst forth near the end of Walpole's administration—a revival which in a few years was to change the whole temper of English society, which restored the Church to life and activity. Religion carried a fresh spirit of moral zeal to the hearts of the poor and purified English literature and English manners. It gave rise to a new philanthropy which reformed English prisons and infused clemency and wisdom into the English penal laws, abolished the slave trade and gave the first impulse to popular education.

John Wesley's Early Life.

John Wesley was born at Epworth, in Leicestershire, June 17, 1703, and was the son of a clergyman of the Established Church. He was educated at Oxford University, and at the age of twenty-three he was ordained a clergyman of the Established Church and elected a Fellow of Lincoln College. His fellowship gave him a small salary, which supported him during a great part of his life. He passed much time in study and prayer and had few companions.

Charles Wesley's Religious Society.

While John Wesley was for a time acting as his father's curate at Epworth, his brother Charles and several other students formed a religious society to meet together for prayer and moral improvement, thus exciting the ridicule of their fellow-students, who called the new society "Bible Bigots," "Bible Moths," "the Holy Club," "the God Club," and finally "Methodists"; the last of which names adhered to the Wesleys and their religious society. John Wesley joined this club when he returned to Oxford, and Whitefield also became a member of the same religious association.

John Wesley in America.

After his father's death, in 1735, John Wesley, on General Oglethorpe's invitation, went on a mission to preach to the Indians of Georgia; but at the close of 1737 he returned to England, just as Whitefield was sailing for America. While in Georgia, Wesley had learned something of the Moravians; and after his return he united with

the Moravians of London in forming a religious society, which met in little bands.

The Wesleys and Whitefield.

When the Methodist group transferred itself from Oxford to London, in 1738, three figures detached themselves from the group which now attracted public attention by the fervor and extravagance of its piety. These three figures were the brothers John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield. Each of these three men found his special work in carrying religion to the vast masses of population in the towns or around the mines and collieries of Cornwall and the North of England.

Whitefield's Preaching.

Whitefield, a servitor of Pembroke College, was the great preacher of the revival. As the pulpits of the Established Church were closed against the new apostles they were obliged to preach in the fields. Their voices were soon heard in every part of England—among the bleak moors of Northumberland, in the dens of London, in the long galleries where the Cornish miner hears the roar of the billowy deep. Whitefield's preaching was such as had never before been heard in England, silencing all criticism in its intense reality, its earnestness of belief, its deep, tremulous sympathy with the sin and sorrow of mankind.

John Wesley's Qualifications.

As a preacher John Wesley was next in power to Whitefield. As a hymn-writer he ranked second to his brother Charles, who came from Christ Church College as the "sweet singer" of the new religious movement. John Wesley also had other admirable qualities—an indefatigable industry, a cool judgment, a command over others, a faculty of organization, a singular combination of patience and moderation with an imperious ambition, which marked him as a ruler of men. He had likewise a learning and a skill in writing possessed by no others of the Methodists. He was older than any of his colleagues and he outlived them all. His life—from 1703 to 1791—embraced almost the whole of the eighteenth century; and the religious organization which he founded passed through almost every phase of its history before he died at the age of eighty-eight, after having done so much for the moral and religious elevation of his fellow-countrymen.

His Asceticism and Superstition.

John Wesley practiced a monkish asceticism, frequently living only on bread and sleeping on the bare boards. He lived in a world of wonders and divine interpositions. He considered it a miracle if the rain ceased and allowed him to proceed on a journey. He regarded it as a punishment from Heaven if a hailstorm burst upon a town which had been deaf to his preaching. He said that one day when his horse became lame: "I thought, can not God heal either man or beast by any means or without any? Immediately my headache ceased and my horse's lameness in the same instant." He guided his conduct by

drawing lots or by watching at what particular texts he opened his Bible.

His Conservatism.

But, with all his superstition, John Wesley was practical, orderly and conservative; and no man ever headed a new movement who was more anti-revolutionary. In his earlier days the bishops had been obliged to rebuke him for the intolerance and narrowness of his Churchmanship. When Whitefield began his sermons Wesley could not at first approve of "that strange way." He condemned and fought against the admission of laymen as preachers till he found himself left with only laymen to preach. He clung with a passionate fondness to the Church of England to the last, and simply regarded the body which he had founded as only a lay society in communion with that Church. He broke with the Moravians, the earliest friends of his movement, when they imperiled its safe conduct by their contempt of religious forms. He broke with Whitefield when that great preacher plunged into an extravagant Calvinism.

His Organization of the Methodist Movement.

But this same practical temper of mind finally enabled John Wesley to grasp and organize the new movement. He himself became the most diligent of field preachers, and his journal of half a century is mainly a record of fresh journeys and fresh sermons. When he was finally obliged to employ lay preachers he made their work a new and attractive feature of his system. His earlier asceticism lingered only in his dread of social enjoyment and an aversion to the gayer and livelier side of life which marks the resemblance of the Methodist movement to the Puritan movement of the preceding century. As his superstitious fervor gradually gave way in his later years he discouraged the enthusiastic outbursts of his followers, so characteristic at the opening of the new movement.

Green's Remark.

Says Green: "It was no common enthusiast who could wring gold from the close-fisted Franklin and admiration from the fastidious Horace Walpole, or who could look down from the top of a green knoll at Kingswood on twenty thousand colliers, grimy from the Bristol coal-pits, and see, as he preached, the tears 'making white channels down their blackened cheeks.'" This was in allusion to Whitefield.

Methodist Enthusiasm.

The effects of Whitefield's preaching and that of his fellow-Methodists were terrible for good and ill. They aroused a passionate enthusiasm in their followers. Women fell down in convulsions. Strong men were stricken suddenly to the ground. The preacher was interrupted by hysteric outbursts of laughter or weeping. All the manifestations of strong spiritual excitement followed in their sermons; and the terrible sense of a conviction of sin, a new dread of hell, a new hope of heaven, assumed forms both grotesque and sublime. Charles Wesle's sweet hymns expressed the fiery conviction of the converts in chaste

ENGLISH AUTHORS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

and beautiful verse; and the wild throes of hysteric enthusiasm gave way to a fondness for hymn-singing, so that a new musical impulse was aroused in the people of England which gradually changed the character of public devotion.

Persecution of Methodists.

The preaching of Whitefield and his colleagues also aroused a fierce hatred in their opponents, and these preachers' lives were frequently imperiled. They were mobbed, ducked, stoned and even smothered with filth. The magistrates frequently allowed the mobs to do as they pleased, and in one place the prosecuting attorney of the county headed the mob. All sorts of ridiculous stories were told about John Wesley. He was said to have been imprisoned for selling gin; to be a Quaker, a Catholic, an Anabaptist; to be going to join the Spaniards, and to have hanged himself.

John Wesley's Personal Direction of the Methodist Organization.

Wesley's powers were directed to building up a great religious society which might give practical and permanent form to the new enthusiasm. The Methodists were grouped in classes, assembled in love-feasts, purified by the expulsion of unworthy members, and supplied with a change of settled clergymen and itinerent preachers; while the entire body was placed under the absolute government of a conference of preachers. But as long as John Wesley lived, the direction of the new religious society remained with him alone. To those who objected to his Church government he replied: "If by arbitrary power you mean a power which I exercise simply without any colleagues therein, this is certainly true, but I see no hurt in it." John Wesley strongly condemned the conduct of the Anglo-American colonists in severing themselves from their Mother Country, and regarded them as rebellious and undutiful children.

Despotic Church Government.

The Methodist body—numbering one hundred thousand at the time of Wesley's death, and now amounting to millions in England and America—bears the impress of John Wesley in more than in its name. Of all Protestant Churches it is the most rigid in its organization and the most despotic in its government.

Beneficial Moral Results of Methodism.

The Methodist Church itself was only a small outcome of the Methodist religious revival. Its action broke the lethargy of the clergy of the Established Church and made the fox-hunting parson and the absentee rector impossible. In this age no body of clergy surpasses that of the Established Church in piety, in philanthropic energy or in popular regard. A new moral enthusiasm took hold of the English nation, thus improving the morals of the upper classes and purifying English literature from the foulness which had infected it since the Stuart Restoration in 1660.

But the noblest results of the Wesleyan movement were its philanthropic effects, which are still felt. The Sunday-schools, established

Philanthropic Effects of Methodism.

by Robert Raikes of Gloucester in 1781, were the beginnings of popular education. Attempts were made to ameliorate the condition of the poor, to alleviate physical suffering, to improve the degraded and the profligate. Hannah More, by her writings and her personal example, drew the sympathy of England to the poverty and crime of the agricultural laborer. The passionate impulse of human sympathy with the wronged and the afflicted led to the erection of hospitals, the endowment of charities, the building of churches, the sending of missionaries to heathen lands. This sentiment supported Burke in his plea for the Hindoo and sustained Wilberforce and Clarkson in their crusade against the iniquitous slave trade. It also upheld Sir Samuel Romilly in his efforts to improve the English penal laws and the noble-hearted John Howard in the cause of prison reform.

Other New Protestant Sects.

Other Protestant sects arose during the eighteenth century; such as the Swedenborgians, or *New Christian Church*, founded by the great Emanuel Swedenborg, Sweden's great divine and philosopher; the *Dunkards* and *Amish* in Germany, who in many points of faith, such as simplicity of dress and manners, aversion to military service and the use of law, coincide with the Mennonites and Quakers, and many of whom have settled in the United States of America; the *Unitarians*, who, like the ancient Arians and like the Socinians of the time of the Reformation, deny the divinity of Christ; and the *Universalists*, who reject the doctrine of a future punishment and who arose in England and America.

French Skepticism and German Rationalism.

In France the writings of Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the Encyclopedists made skepticism in religion almost universal among the intelligent classes. In Germany at the same time the writings of Kant, Nicolai and others also undermined religious faith and gave rise to the *Rationalists*, who denied all divine revelation and supernaturalism.

Social Improvement.

During the last half of the eighteenth century the social condition of the masses exhibited a marked improvement. The new inventions brought within the reach of the poorer classes many more of the comforts and conveniences of life. Public libraries, mechanics' institutes, clubs, coöperative societies and Sunday-schools were now introduced. About the close of the eighteenth century gentlemen cast aside their hanging cuffs and lace ruffles, their cocked hats and wigs, their buckles and swords.

Navigation, Exploration and Discoveries.

During the eighteenth century British navigators were making explorations and discoveries in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. Commodore Anson circumnavigated the globe between 1740 and 1742. Numerous discoveries were made by British navigators, such as Byron, Wallis, Cook, Vancouver and others. Captain Cook discovered a number of small islands in the Pacific, the most important being the

Sandwich, or Hawaiian Islands, in 1778, where he was killed in a dispute with the natives in 1779. The Sandwich Islanders have since been largely converted to Christianity by Christian missionaries, and many Americans have settled in those islands, while the native population has been diminishing. Behring's Strait was discovered in 1741 by Captain Behring, a Dane in the Russian naval service.

The Wahabees in the Moslem World.

In the Mohammedan world, about 1760, Abd el Wahab, of Kurdistan, founded the sect of the *Wahabees*, or *Wahabites*, who disclaimed the divine nature of Mohammed, rejected the mediation of saints and denied the obligation of vows in time of danger. His disciples were highly intolerant and were continually involved in feuds and wars with the neighboring tribes in the East of Asiatic Turkey and Arabia, but were suppressed in Arabia in 1818 by Mehemet Ali, the powerful Pasha of Egypt.

Diffusion of Anglo-Saxon Civilization.

The English conquest of India and the extension of the British dominion in other parts of the world brought about more frequent communication and a more enlarged intercourse between all parts of the globe, and thus led to a diffusion of European civilization, especially of Anglo-Saxon civilization—the highest type of civilization yet attained by man. Thus, when England had established free institutions on a solid basis in her own home, she was preparing the way for the extension of the same boon to other peoples in remote parts of the earth and thus elevating and improving the races which she had conquered.

MAP OF
EUROPE
After Treaty of Vienna (A.D. 1816)
By I. S. Clare.
SCALE OF MILES.
0 50 100 200 300 400
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ICELAND
(To Denmark)
Mt. Hecla
FAROE ISLES
(To Denmark)
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES ISLES
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
UNITED KINGDOM OF
IRELAND
DUBLIN
LONDON
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
COPENHAGEN
SKAGER RACK
CATTEGAT
Christiansund
Christiania
Gottenburg
Helsingborg
Lund
Elsinore
Odensee
Aalborg
Viborg
Ribe
Hamburg
Lubeck
Stettin
Colberg
Danzig
Memel
Konigsberg
Pillau
Elbing
Posen
Breslau
Dresden
Leipsic
Frankfort
Cologne
Coblentz
Mayence
Metz
Nancy
Strasburg
Stuttgart
Ratisbon
Munich
Inspruck
Augsburg
Vienna
Presburg
Buda
Pesth
Gratz
Laybach
Trieste
Fiume
Agram
Essek
Semlin
Belgrade
Widdin
Sophia
Adrianople
Constantinople
Gallipoli
Smyrna
Scio
Rhodes
Cyprus
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
Mecca
Medina
Jidda
Mocha
Aden
Muscat
Ormuz
Bussorah
Bagdad
Mosul
Diarbekir
Erzeroum
Trebizond
Tiflis
Erivan
Ararat
Caspian Sea
Astrakan
Georgia
Circassia
Mingrelia
Black Sea
Crimea
Sebastopol
Kaffa
Taganrog
Azoff
Don
Volga
Saratoff
Kazan
Moscow
Smolensk
Riga
Mitau
Dorpat
Revel
Narva
Petersburg
Wiborg
Abo
Tornea
Uleaborg
Gulf of Bothnia
Gottland
Stockholm
Upsala
Carlscrona
Calmar
Gothenburg
Christianstad
Wenersborg
Carlstadt
Orebro
Falun
Gefle
Hernosand
Ostersund
Lapland
Finland
Sweden
Norway
Christiansand
Bergen
Drontheim
Hammerfest
North Cape
Archangel
Onega
Ladoga
Lake Peipus
Pskoff
Wilna
Grodno
Warsaw
Thorn
Posen
Kalisch
Cracow
Lemberg
Brody
Zamosc
Lublin
Brest
Minsk
Mohilev
Kiow
Tchernigov
Poltava
Kharkoff
Orel
Tula
Kaluga
Moscow
Vladimir
Nijni Novgorod
Simbirsk
Penza
Tambov
Voronezh
Kursk
Orel
Tula
Riazan
Tver
Yaroslav
Kostroma
Vologda
Perm
Ekaterinburg
Tobolsk
Tomsk
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Okhotsk
Kamtchatka
Behring Strait
Behring Island
Copper Island
Aleutian Islands
Kurile Islands
Japan
Yesso
Niphon
Sea of Japan
Yellow Sea
Corea
China
Pekin
Nankin
Canton
Macao
Hong Kong
Formosa
Philippine Islands
Manilla
Luzon
Mindanao
Borneo
Celebes
Java
Sumatra
Malacca
Singapore
Penang
Ava
Pegu
Siam
Bangkok
Cambodia
Cochin China
Tonquin
Hainan
Bay of Bengal
Calcutta
Madras
Pondicherry
Goa
Bombay
Surat
Cambay
Gulf of Cambay
Ahmedabad
Delhi
Agra
Lucknow
Allahabad
Benares
Patna
Dacca
Chittagong
Arracan
Ceylon
Colombo
Candy
Trincomalee
Maldive Islands
Laccadive Islands
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Hyderabad
Golconda
Nagpore
Gwalior
Jeypore
Ajmere
Jodhpore
Bikanir
Lahore
Multan
Cashmere
Peshawur
Cabul
Candahar
Herat
Persia
Teheran
Ispahan
Shiraz
Bushire
Gulf of Persia
Arabia

Longitude from Greenwich
East 70
75
66
60
55
50
45
40
35
30
ARCTIC OCEAN
WHITE SEA
Mezene
Archangel
Dwina River
Onega River
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Petchora River
Ural Mountains
SIBERIA
Asia River
RUSSIA
TOBOLSK
Perm
Ufa
Orenburg
INDEPENDENT TARTARY
KIRGHESTAN
ST. PETERSBURG
Cronstadt
Novgorod
Rostof
Susdal
Nijni Novgorod
Kazan
Vladimir
Moscow
Witepsk
Smolensk
Kalouga
Kursk
Saratov
Wolga River
Tchernigov
Kief
Poltowa
Dnieper River
Alexandrov
Nicholaef
Kherson
Odessa
Sea of Azov
Azov
Astrakhan
CIRCASSIA
Caspian Sea
Derbent
Baku
Sevastopol
Simferopol
Kaffa
Balaklava
Eupatoria
Galatz
Ibrail
Silistria
BLACK SEA
CONSTANTINOPLE
Batoum
Ardahan
Kars
Erivan
Nakshivan
Araxes River
Mt. Ararat
Sinope
Trebizond
Sea of Marmora
Gallipoli
Lake Van
Lake Urumiyah
Tabreez
Resht
AZERBIJAN
KINGDOM OF PERSIA
TEHERAN
Smyrna
Adana
Aleppo
Marash
Diarbekr
Mosul
Euphrates River
Hamadan
Kermanshah
Ispahan
RHODES
CYPRUS
Tripoli
Beyrout
Damascus
Saida
Acre
Hums
Hamah
Bagdad
Tigris River
IRAK ARABI
KHUSJISTAN
Hillah
Bassorah
Persian Gulf
ARABIA
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Port Said
Damietta
Alexandria
Rosetta
EGYPT
CAIRO
Suez
Akaba
40
45

CHAPTER XLI.

REVOLUTIONS IN EUROPE.

SECTION I.—NEW STATES-SYSTEM AND HOLY ALLIANCE (A. D. 1815).

Congress of Vienna and New States-System.

The Congress of Vienna in 1815 had reconstructed the map of Europe, restoring to the different powers the territories which Napoleon had wrested from them. Holland and Belgium became one kingdom, entitled *The Netherlands*, under the House of Orange, or Nassau. Poland became a separate kingdom, with a Diet and constitution of its own, under the Czar of Russia. Norway was transferred from the King of Denmark to the King of Sweden; but each of these two Scandinavian kingdoms had its own constitution and its own Diet; the Diet, or Storthing, of Norway being very democratic in its popular branch. Prussia recovered all her lost territories and received in addition a large part of Saxony. Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg and Hanover were recognized as kingdoms. The Tyrol and Lombardy were restored to Austria. The Kingdom of Sardinia and the Swiss Republic were restored, as was also the Bourbon dynasty in Naples. The Bourbons were also restored in Spain, and the House of Braganza in Portugal.

Germanic Confederation.

The old Germano-Roman Empire was not restored; but in its stead Austria, Prussia and the other German states were united into a league called the *Germanic Confederation*, whose Diet was to assemble regularly at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and the Austrian representative was to preside over the Diet. The new States-System thus established was to be maintained by Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia —which were recognized as the *Five Great Powers*—whose duty was to preserve the peace of Europe and to manage European affairs exclusively. The principal plenipotentiaries in the Congress of Vienna were the Emperor Alexander of Russia, Prince Metternich of Austria, Talleyrand of France and Lord Castlereagh of Great Britain.

The Five Great Powers.

The sufferings and misfortunes which had been inflicted upon Europe in consequence of the great French Revolution and the resultant mili-

Holy Alliance and Its Support of Absolutism.

tary despotism of Napoleon Bonaparte turned men's minds to serious thoughts and to religious feelings, thus giving predominance to piety and Christian faith in the hearts of the royal families and the upper classes of European society. Imbued with this religious sentiment, the three great absolute sovereigns of Europe—Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, King Frederick William III. of Prussia and Emperor Francis I. of Austria—signed, in the city of Paris, on September 25, 1815, the famous compact known as the *Holy Alliance*, by which they swore as follows: "That, in accordance with the teachings of Holy Scripture, which commands all men to love each other as brethren, we will remain united in the bonds of true and indissoluble brotherly love; that we will mutually aid and assist each other; that we will govern our subjects like fathers of families, and that we will maintain religion, peace and justice." In the course of a very few years the Holy Alliance was joined by all the sovereigns of Europe except the Pope and the British monarch. As we shall see presently, this powerful league of crowned heads, with its beautiful theory of brotherly love and fatherly affection for their subjects, was soon made the instrument for the suppression of all constitutional, liberal and democratic tendencies and the strengthening of absolute monarchical power under the mask of piety and religion; thus pursuing a liberty-crushing state policy which sought, by means of religion, to establish monarchical absolutism and the omnipotence of crowned sovereigns by the suppression of the doctrine of popular sovereignty and all liberal, democratic and constitutional forms of government. As the Holy Alliance used Christianity to establish reactionary principles, it drew upon its whole work the reproach of hypocrisy as well as popular hatred.

Popular Democratic and Constitutional Aspirations.

While European monarchs and princes were seeking to preserve and maintain absolute governments, the people of Europe were striving for constitutional forms. A free constitutional government, like that enjoyed by the people of Great Britain, was what seemed most desirable to the oppressed masses of Europe; as, by the time-honored British Constitution, the masses of the British people, through their representatives in the House of Commons, the popular, or republican branch of the British Parliament, have the right of voting taxes and a share in the government and a voice in legislation, while the authority of the monarch and the rights and liberties of the British people are alike safeguarded by this representative constitution, the product of the wisdom and experience of centuries of English statesmanship and patriotism. The chief exertions of European liberals and constitutionalists were therefore directed to the establishment or enlargement of such constitutional government in Continental Europe, and the public attention was almost wholly turned to political and state affairs. Accordingly,

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

two powerful political parties struggled incessantly for the mastery in Continental Europe; the party desiring to give the masses as many privileges and as much political power as possible being called *Democratic, Liberal,* or *Radical;* while the party seeking to restrict the political privileges of the people and to uphold absolutism was called *Absolutist, Aristocratic,* or *Conservative.* As the Absolutist, or Conservative party was the party generally in power in the states of Continental Europe, the Liberal, or Constitutional party generally formed the opposition. Of the Five Great Powers of Europe, Great Britain and France alone had constitutional governments; Austria, Prussia and Russia being thoroughly absolute monarchies, their sovereigns being wholly unhampered by a constitution or by a national legislative body.

SECTION II.—REACTION IN FRANCE AND GERMANY (A. D. 1815–1830).

Louis XVIII., A. D. 1814–1824.

After the restoration of the Bourbons, in the person of Louis XVIII., France was distracted by the contests of parties. A reaction in favor of the royalists had taken place among the French people. The royalists manifested the most intense hatred against the Bonapartists and the republicans, who were charged with the authorship of all the misery which had been brought upon the country by twenty-three years of revolution and war.

Party Contests.

Royalist Excesses.

The zealous royalists, not satisfied with the moderation of the king, who tried to steer between the two extremes, demanded punishment of the Bonapartists and republicans; and Louis XVIII., although disposed to be moderate, found himself obliged to banish all those who had caused the execution of his brother, Louis XVI. In place of the free-thinking opinions of the Revolutionary period and the former hostility to the Church, a fanatical religious credulity made its appearance, which, along with the most enthusiastic royalism, led to deeds of blood recalling the most sanguinary days of the Reign of Terror. Thus the royalists, called *White Jacobins,* disgraced themselves by bloody massacres of Protestants, Bonapartists and republicans at Marseilles, Nismes, Toulon, Toulouse, Avignon and Lyons. Among those murdered was Marshal Brune.

Royalist Reaction.

To gratify the reactionary party, which desired the reëstablishment of the ancient despotism, the king was forced to violate, in many instances, the constitutional Charter, which he had sworn to observe. He was urged, against his own will, to place restrictions upon the liberties of the people in various ways and to increase the royal power. The influence of the royalists prevailed to some extent, and the liberty of the press and other privileges were restricted in a great measure.

Moderation of Louis XVIII.

In September, 1816, King Louis XVIII. dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, whose reactionary tendencies had disgusted even this Bourbon monarch. He declared his determination to govern his kingdom in accordance with the principles of the Charter; and the elections which were held a month afterward resulted in the choice of candidates of the moderate, or constitutional party, which heartily sustained the government.

France's Accession to the Holy Alliance.

The accession of France to the Holy Alliance at the Congress of Aix la Chapelle, in 1818, when the foreign military occupation of France ceased, through the efforts of the Duke of Wellington, the commander of this allied army, thus reducing the term of occupation from five to three years, engaged the French government to a system of policy designed to secure monarchical power throughout Europe; but a large number of the French deputies resisted the extension of the royal prerogative; and the French Prime Minister, Decazes, supported by the moderate royalists, sought to frame a system which would strengthen the monarchy without injuring the constitution. But he was violently opposed by the ultras, or violent royalists, who obtained a temporary triumph through an unfortunate event, the result of popular exasperation.

Result of the Assassination of the Duke of Berry.

The assassination of the Duke of Berry, the king's nephew and the son of the Count of Artois, on the night of February 13, 1820, by the fanatic Louvel facilitated the efforts of the reactionary party, headed by the Count of Artois and the Duke of Angoulême. These ultra royalists, called the *extreme right*, because of the place they occupied in the Chambers, denounced Decazes for encouraging doctrines subversive of the monarchy, producing such effect upon the court that Decazes resigned. The widowed Duchess of Berry gave birth to a son, September 29, 1820, who received the title of Duke of Bordeaux—an event hailed with joy by the Bourbonists, as it gave them an heir to the French throne.

Ministry of the Duke de Richelieu and the Ultra Royalists.

An ultra-royalist Ministry under the Duke de Richelieu was then formed; and laws were passed authorizing the Prime Minister to arrest suspected persons, imposing censorship on the press and raising the qualifications for the elective franchise; but even these violations of the Charter did not satisfy the *extreme right*, who accordingly united with the *left*, or liberal party, in the Chambers, in strenuous efforts to overthrow the Richelieu Ministry. The Chambers were the scenes of violent and stormy debates unbecoming the dignity of a deliberative assembly. The Duke de Richelieu resigned, December 17, 1821, and was succeeded by a more ultra-royalist Ministry under Villele. The popular dissatisfaction was manifested in numberless plots, riots and incendiary fires, which were made the pretext for fresh restrictions.

Villele's Ultra Royalist Ministry.

Under Villele's Ministry the zeal of the royalists reached its climax. The royalist majority in the Chamber of Deputies showed itself so very unscrupulous, by expelling the liberal deputy Manuel for revolutionary doctrines without permitting him to make any defense, that the left retired from the Chamber in a body; so that the Chamber voted funds without opposition for sending the army under the Duke of Angoulême into Spain to restore the absolute power of King Ferdinand VII. The French army of one hundred thousand men under the Duke of Angoulême then invaded Spain, A. D. 1823, at the command of the Holy Alliance, and restored the absolute power of the Bourbon King of Spain.

French Restoration of Absolutism in Spain.

Elections of 1824.

The success of the French army in Spain emboldened the Ministry of Villele to set aside the Charter, and, by means of intimidation, bribery and corruption in the elections of 1824, to obtain a Chamber of Deputies which contained but nineteen liberal members.

Charles X., A. D. 1824–1830.

King Louis XVIII. died September 16, 1824, and was succeeded as King of France by his brother, the Count of Artois, who thus became CHARLES X. The new king was a thorough Bourbon, ignorant, narrow-minded, a firm believer in absolute rule and thoroughly under the influence of the Jesuits. He was frank and cordial in his disposition, and his friends were warmly attached to him. By his solemn coronation and anointing at Rheims, May 29, 1825, he seemed to indicate that he intended to govern after the manner of the old "Most Christian" kings. He therefore turned his affections toward the nobility and the clergy and gave himself up entirely to the reactionary party, whose watchword was "Throne and Altar."

His Ultra Reactionary Policy.

Villele's Unpopular Acts.

Under the new king, Villele brought forward two very unpopular measures, one granting an indemnification of a thousand francs each to the Emigrants for the forfeiture of their estates during the Revolution, and another reducing the rate of interest on the public debt. These laws were passed with great opposition; but some concession was made to public opinion by acknowledging the independence of Hayti and opening commercial intercourse with the South American republics, while commercial treaties were also concluded with Great Britain and the Empire of Brazil.

Attempted Religious Regeneration of France.

A series of laws in favor of the Roman Catholic Church announced the king's intention to erect a powerful bulwark against all revolutionary doctrines by the religious regeneration of France. This regeneration was to be effected by founding rich bishoprics, by restoring the Roman Catholic clergy to their old position and influence in France—a feat which the bigoted and reactionary monarch was not able to accomplish. The Jesuits, who had been restored by the Pope long before, returned to France rather clandestinely, founded congrega-

tions for pious devotion and sought to get control of the education of youth. While the deluded sovereign supposed that he could rivet the old fetters upon people's minds by inopportune missions and penitential processions or by compulsory laws and limitations, he was, by this very means, strengthening the liberal opposition, as all men of philosophical education, all friends of enlightenment, turned away from a government that favored obscurantism and darkness, and the assiduous youth listened to the liberal discourses and doctrines of the enlightened professors of the University of Paris, such as Guizot, Villemain, Royer-Collard and others, or read the bold and free discussions of the opposition, or liberal press, such as the Paris *Globe*, *Nationale*, *Constitutionel*, etc., or delighted themselves with Beranger's songs of freedom and the satires of the Hellenist, Paul Louis Courier, while the French citizens read the widely-circulated works of Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu and the Encyclopedists, or the histories and memorials of the Revolution and of the renowned rule of Napoleon by Thiers, Mignet and others.

Laws of Primo-Geniture.

Villele strengthened his Ministry in 1826 by creating thirty-one new peers. By reviving the old laws of primogeniture and entail he sought to establish the aristocracy of France on a permanent basis, but the law of primogeniture was so odious to the great masses of the French nation that it was rejected by the Chamber of Peers. Public attention in France was occupied mainly by the trial of Ouvrard, who had furnished supplies to the French army when it invaded Spain in 1823. The terms of his contract were exorbitant, and he succeeded in effecting it by wholesale bribery. He had likewise joined in drawing double pay and double rations for the soldiers in the campaign in Spain. When Villele first heard of the transaction he caused Ouvrard to be arrested and brought to trial; but when, in the course of the investigation, it appeared that many persons of great rank and influence were implicated in the transaction, the Prime Minister induced the Chamber of Peers to bring the matter to a hasty conclusion. But the abuses which had been disclosed were already made public; and the effort to screen the guilty, combined with the illegal protection accorded to the Jesuits, exposed Villele to public and deserved censure.

Ouvrard's Trial and Its Result.

Villele's Additional Unpopular Acts.

The alienation of the French people from Villele's Ministry was completed by the dissolution of the National Guard, the revival of the censorship of the press and the adoption of several harsh measures to disperse popular assemblies. Villele was conscious that he was losing ground; wherefore he dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, though three years of its term were yet unexpired. At the same time he created seventy-six new peers—an act wholly at variance with the spirit of the Charter.

Villele was disappointed by the result of the elections, which returned a liberal majority. The king himself seemed to abandon the principles of the Holy Alliance by congratulating the Chambers on the victory of Navarino and expressing himself favorable to the liberties of Greece. Soon afterward Villele resigned and was succeeded by a more liberal Ministry under M. Portalis. One of the first measures of this Ministry was to remove the system of public education from the control of the Jesuits. This proceeding was popular with the French nation, but it gave great offense to the king. The new Ministry was opposed by the *extreme right*, by the clergy and by many of its professed partisans, and was suspected by the *left;* and M. Portalis finally resigned August 8, 1829, whereupon an ultra-royalist Cabinet under the leadership of Prince Jules de Polignac was appointed.

Villele's Defeat and Resignation.

Liberal Ministry of Portalis.

Polignac.

After the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, Germany was weaker and less united than she had been during the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation. Though the number of independent principalities and states had been decreased in number by more than a hundred, and though the bishoprics, abbacies and imperial towns had been deprived of their independent position, the thirty-eight states which embraced the new Germanic Confederation were invested with sovereign powers so far as their internal, or domestic affairs were concerned. Instead of the old German Imperial Diet, the general affairs of the Germanic Confederation were managed by the German Federal Diet, which convened regularly at the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main, and which, as we have seen, was composed of representatives of all the German states, Austria's representative being president of the Diet. But, as the German Federal Diet was wholly under the direction of the individual German state governments, it possessed no independent power; so that the Germanic Confederation was a feeble member among the European nations, entirely under the influence of the two great German powers, the Empire of Austria and the Kingdom of Prussia, which assumed the first rank on account of their German provinces. Even foreign kingdoms sent representatives to the German Federal Diet, the King of Denmark being represented for the duchy of Holstein and the King of Holland for the duchy of Luxemburg, as before noticed.

Weakness of Germany under the Confederation.

Germany's weak condition was as unsatisfactory abroad as its internal arrangements were at home. Instead of a powerful union, with a united confederated government and a popular representation, as desired by patriotic Germans, the arrangement framed by the Viennese Congress was a union consisting of a number of sovereign German states, in which the governments, not the people, of these German

Unsatisfactory German State Constitutions.

states, were represented; and the thirteenth article of the Union Act, which gave a general promise of the introduction of state constitutions, without any distinct notice of the time and manner of such introduction, did not satisfy the popular expectations. As Prussia, where the reactionary party under Haller, Schmalz and others soon obtained the ascendency over the popular party of the War of German Liberation, delayed bringing forward the promised state constitution and at length introduced, instead of the desired German imperial legislature, only provincial estates with consulting voices, without either publicity or general interest, the discontent of the German people grew greater daily. Austria, under the influence of her celebrated statesman and Prime Minister, Prince Metternich, who was the real ruler of the Austrian Empire for a third of a century, from 1815 to 1848, first under the Emperor Francis I. (1815–1835), and then under the latter's son and successor, Ferdinand I. (1835–1848), was governed in a spirit of complete absolutism and kept as far aloof from the German body-politic as possible. Prussia was governed in the same absolute spirit and was the instrument for the execution of very unpopular measures. There being no general system of management or debate, the constitutions that were gradually introduced into Saxe-Weimar, Würtemberg, Bavaria, Hesse and many other smaller German states were very dissimilar from each other, so that Germany appeared torn and divided, and it seemed that the Fatherland would be dissolved into its separate races and states.

German Popular Discontent and the Wartburg Festival.

The foregoing condition of things filled Germany with great popular discontent and weakened public confidence in the patriotism of the German state governments. The German liberal party aimed at a progressive development of state affairs in a democratic direction and kept alive the sentiment in favor of German unity, and this party grew stronger daily. Above all, the German youth, who were filled with admiration of the Middle Ages by the new romantic poetry produced by the famous brothers, Augustus William and Frederick von Schlegel, the poet Novalis, Ludwig Tieck and others, were dissatisfied with existing political conditions in Germany, longing for the German Empire of the Middle Ages and for the former unity and greatness of Germany, and seeking to invigorate the new ideas of popular government under the old German forms and titles. With no clear aim and with no knowledge or respect for obstacles, the German youths in the high schools had formed the fraternal alliance of the *General Burschenschaft* and strove for an ideal world and state creation upon the old German system. This feeling first exhibited itself during the festival of the Wartburg, October 18, 1817, the fourth anniversary of the battle of Leipsic and the third centennial of the Reformation,

which was celebrated with great enthusiasm throughout Protestant Germany, and on which occasion a number of students, in remembrance of the War of German Liberation, held a meeting at the Wartburg, near Eisenach, at which fiery speeches were made by the youths, and at the conclusion of which, in imitation of Luther's example in burning the Pope's bull of condemnation, certain writings of Kotzebue, Kamptz, Haller, Jarke and others, which were offensive to their views, along with pigtails, breast-laces, corporals' canes and other antiquated and feudal symbols, were wantonly burned. This outburst of youthful eloquence caused the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia and Russia to denounce the German student society at the Congress of Aix la Chapelle, in 1818.

Assassination of Kotzebue.

Augustus von Kotzebue—the great German dramatist and Russian Consul-General in Germany—ridiculed the student demonstration and its outburst of youthful eloquence through the medium of the press, whereupon a student, George Sand, of Wunsiedel, who had been one of the moving spirits of the Wartburg demonstration and who was a pious and patriotic youth imbued with vanity and fanaticism, embraced the criminal design of killing Kotzebue, who was suspected of imperiling German freedom and political development by transmitting information to the Russian government. Desiring to rid the German nation of this "Russian spy," this "traitor to the country," Sand approached the unsuspecting Kotzebue in Mannheim with a letter and pierced him with a dagger as he was reading this letter, March 23, 1819. Sand failed in his attempt at suicide, recovering from his self-inflicted wounds and ending his life on the scaffold. His deed of assassination filled the land with horror; and the German statesman, suspecting the existence of a widespread conspiracy, curtailed the freedom of the universities and filled the prisons with students and adopted effective repressive measures against student demonstrations.

Repressive Measures.

By the Decrees of Carlbad, in September, 1819, the freedom of the press in Germany was restrained by a censorship, a court of investigation was established at Mayence for the suppression of "demagogic intrigues," the alliances of the *Burschenschaft* with their gymnasia were interdicted, the universities were placed under the supervision of special government officials, and finally unconditional validity to the resolutions of the German Federal Diet was given for all German state governments. By the concluding act of Vienna the democratic spirit of the South German provinces was greatly restricted. Prussia, which for a long time had been the hope and confidence of all German patriots, now became the leader in reactionary and unpopular measures. Arndt, Jahn and others whose voices and example had such great influence upon the popular cause were now prosecuted as supporters of "dema-

gogic intrigues" and deprived of their offices and watched very closely by the police. Thenceforth the unity of Germany was regarded as a dream, and any one who expressed a desire for such consummation was suspected of "demagogic intrigues." Each German state was considered an independent sovereignty and was governed without regard to the general interest of the German Fatherland, and, although many excellent arrangements were adopted in the governmental administration of justice and in the affairs of religion and education, comparatively little was done to arouse sentiments of German nationality and patriotism.

SECTION III.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1820 IN SPAIN, PORTUGAL, ITALY.

Free Masons in Spain and Portugal and Carbonari in Italy.

In Spain, Portugal and Italy the new liberal political ideas had made no progress among the masses of the people, as the masses in those countries were too much attached to their Church and its priesthood, the new liberal ideas existing simply among the few educated persons; and, as it was dangerous to avow such ideas openly, they were disseminated in secret societies, such as the Free Masons in Spain and Portugal and the *Carbonari* in Italy. The great objects of these secret political associations were the abolition of priestly power, the introduction of free constitutional government, the enlightenment of the people, the inculcation of patriotism and sentiments of liberty and nationality.

Ferdinand VII. of Spain, A. D. 1814–1833.

The influence of these secret political societies was productive of results first in Spain, whose restored Bourbon king, Ferdinand VII., a false and suspicious man and an expert in dissimulation, suppressed the Cortes Constitution of 1812 and restored absolute monarchical power with all its old-time evils, upon his restoration to his throne, May 10, 1814. The Spanish nobility and clergy recovered their former exemption from taxation; the monasteries were restored; the Jesuits made their reappearance; the Inquisition was again in full swing, with the rack and other horrors.

Tyranny Restored.

Persecution of Spanish Liberals.

Under the restored Bourbon regime in Spain a frightful persecution followed, in which the Alfrancesados, or adherents of France, and officials and supporters of former King Joseph Bonaparte, were the victims, as were also the chiefs and partisans of the Cortes, and even the leaders of the guerrilla bands who had shed their life-blood for King Ferdinand VII. himself and for their country against its recent French invaders and who now claimed a share in the government and civil freedom as their well-deserved reward for their patriotic devotion

to their country and their legitimate sovereign. Many of these heroic warriors died by the hand of the executioner, and others wandered in foreign lands as outlaws and fugitives; while those who remained behind concealed their opinions and their resentment in silence. A camarilla, composed of the selfish privileged class, greedy parasites, sycophantic courtiers and intriguing women, secured King Ferdinand's confidence and instigated him to the most cruel persecution of the whole Spanish liberal party. The government and the administration of justice were in the most deplorable condition. The national treasury was exhausted, notwithstanding the most oppressive taxation, and trade was stagnant. In addition, the Spanish colonies in North and South America had renounced their allegiance to Spain and were engaged in a war of independence, which ended in the loss of those colonies to Spain and in the formation of a number of Spanish American republics, the account of which will be noticed more fully in another part of this work.

Spanish Revolution of 1820.

On New Year's Day, 1820, a military conspiracy ended in open rebellion among the Spanish regiments at Cadiz as they were about to be embarked for South America to assist in crushing the rebellion against Spanish authority on that continent. These Spanish rebels at Cadiz proclaimed the Cortes Constitution of 1812. This Spanish insurrection, under Colonel Riego and the recently-liberated Quiroga, soon spread to every part of Spain, and the popular demand everywhere was for the restoration of the Cortes Constitution of 1812—a demand which was completely triumphant, as King Ferdinand VII. was obliged to yield by summoning the Cortes and swearing to the Constitution, March 7, 1820.

Portuguese Revolution of 1821.

The triumph of the Spanish revolutionists encouraged the liberals of Portugal and Italy to similar undertakings. Popular outbreaks in Lisbon and Oporto, in August, 1820, resulted in the overthrow of the Ministry of the English Lord Beresford, who governed Portugal in the name of King John VI., who still lingered in Brazil, having become King of Portugal upon the death of his mother, Queen Maria, in 1816; and the revolution ended in summoning the Portuguese Cortes and in the establishment of a constitution in Portugal similar to the one just adopted in Spain. King John VI. returned to Portugal and swore to the new constitution, January 26, 1821. In 1822 Brazil peacefully became independent of Portugal as an empire under Dom Pedro I., the son of King John VI. of Portugal.

Revolutions in Naples and Piedmont.

Incited by the Spanish Revolution of 1820, the Carbonari excited a military conspiracy in Naples, which soon broadened into a revolution which compelled the tyrannical restored Bourbon King of Naples, Ferdinand IV., to grant a liberal constitution similar to the Spanish

Cortes Constitution of 1812; and William Pepe and Carascosa, the leaders of the revolution, marched triumphantly into the city of Naples at the head of the revolutionary troops and the Carbonari, July 13, 1820. A military and popular insurrection in Piedmont in March, 1821, compelled King Victor Emmanuel I. of Sardinia to abdicate his throne in favor of his brother Charles Felix, March 13, 1821; and a liberal constitution similar to the Spanish Cortes Constitution was also established in the Kingdom of Sardinia.

Restoration of Absolutism in Naples and Piedmont by the Holy Alliance.

Disturbed by this revolutionary spirit, which was also infecting the German youth, the three crowned heads who had formed the Holy Alliance held a conference at Troppau, in Austrian Silesia, in October, 1820, and at the instigation of Prince Metternich, the Austrian Prime Minister, they resolved to suppress the Neapolitan constitution by force of arms. King Ferdinand IV. of Naples, who by invitation met the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia and Russia at Laybach, in January, 1821, agreed to the proposal; and accordingly an Austrian army of forty-three thousand men marched into Naples, and, after several insignificant conflicts, compelled the revolutionary forces under Pepe and Carascosa to disperse or surrender; whereupon King Ferdinand IV. abolished the constitution which he had granted and resumed his former despotic power. An Austrian army soon entered Piedmont to suppress the constitution in the Sardinian kingdom. The Piedmontese revolutionists under Santa Rosa were defeated at Novara, April, 1821, and the Austrians occupied the cities of Turin and Alessandria; whereupon the Piedmontese constitution was overthrown and absolute monarchy was reëstablished in the Kingdom of Sardinia in its severest form and with all the horrors of the reaction.

Despotism in Naples and Piedmont.

After the forcible suppression of the liberal constitutions in Naples and Piedmont by the military power of Austria at the instigation of the Holy Alliance, absolutism prevailed in both those Italian kingdoms. In Naples absolute monarchy was upheld by mercenary troops and a system of police; and the Neapolitan people remained passive, from a feeling of terror, their love of liberty appearing to be only a mere outbreak of momentary excitement. King Ferdinand IV. of Naples died in 1825 and was succeeded by his son Francis I., who died in 1830 and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand V.

Liberal Excesses in Spain.

The Spanish Cortes Constitution also had a melancholy end. The Spanish liberals abused their power by hasty innovations and by persecutions of the priests and the supporters of the Apostolic party, which favored the Church and the priesthood and absolute royal power and class privileges; many restrictions being placed on the kingly authority and the privileged classes and the ancient and traditionary usages being subject to attacks, thus arousing the priests and the

Apostolic party to violent resistance and bringing on a bloody civil war, which distracted Spain for several years.

Intervention of the Holy Alliance.

The excesses of the Spanish liberals brought about the intervention of the Holy Alliance in Spain also. It was resolved by these leagued crowned heads, in a Congress at Verona, in October, 1822, to compel the Spanish Cortes to amend the Spanish Constitution so as to give the king greater power; and when the Cortes rejected this demand with defiance the Holy Alliance resorted to force to compel submission to its demand and intrusted the execution of its will to France.

Suppression of the Spanish Constitution by a French Army.

Accordingly, in February, 1823, a French army of one hundred thousand men under the Duke of Angoulême crossed the Pyrenees and entered Spain to enforce the decree of the Holy Alliance. Vainly did the Spanish Cortes call upon the Spanish people to drive out the French invaders, as constitutional freedom had no charms for the Spanish masses and as the new liberal system was opposed to their habits and feelings. The hope of the Cortes in a popular uprising and in guerrilla warfare did not materialize, as the Spanish masses and the camarilla saluted the French invaders as deliverers from the hated rule of the Free Masons. Vainly did a few liberal leaders, like Mina in Barcelona and Quiroga in Leon, resist the foreign invaders with courage and resolution, as the Spanish soldiers exhibited no warlike resistance and saved themselves by capitulations. The French entered Madrid in triumph and appointed a regency, the king and the Cortes having fled into the South of Spain. The supporters of the Cortes Constitution made their last stand at Cadiz, but when the French appeared before the city the courage of the Cortes faded away, although that body had grandiloquently declared its determination to bury itself beneath the ruins of the city, and it entered into a treaty with the French besiegers by which it agreed to its own dissolution and to the release of King Ferdinand VII., who thus recovered his former absolute power under the protection of French bayonets, and who reigned despotically thenceforth until his death in 1833.

Complete Triumph of Absolutism in Spain.

Thus the Spanish Cortes Constitution and the new political system were completely overthrown and absolute monarchy was again triumphant in Spain, while the unfortunate Spanish liberals suffered the penalties of defeat. Riego and many of his associates in the liberal movement were executed, while many thousands of his followers were incarcerated in dreary dungeons, and thousands of others saved themselves in self-exile from their country, wandering in foreign lands as starving and homeless fugitives and outlaws, thus expiating the crime of trying to better the condition of their fellow-countrymen by taking from them the institutions of Church and State to which three centuries of absolute despotism had accustomed them.

Overthrow of the Portuguese Constitution.

The deplorable end of the Cortes Constitution in Spain encouraged the Queen of Portugal, who was a sister of King Ferdinand VII, of Spain, and her son, Dom Miguel, to get rid of their obnoxious constitution by an act of violence. Through their instigation, and with the support of the Apostolic party of Portugal, consisting of the clergy, the aristocracy and Dom Miguel's supporters, King John VI. abolished the Portuguese constitution in 1823 and sanctioned the persecution of the Portuguese constitutionalists and Free Masons.

Dom Miguel's Rebellion in Portugal.

In April, 1824, Dom Miguel excited a rebellion in Portugal against his father, King John VI., for the purpose of obtaining the regency, but he was defeated, and as a punishment he was banished from the kingdom. King John VI. died March 10, 1826, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his son, Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil, who soon, however, resigned the crown of Portugal to his infant daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, who thus became Queen Maria II., while Dom Pedro also appointed his brother, Dom Miguel, who had returned from his exile, regent of the kingdom and granted the Portuguese people a liberal constitution.

Dom Pedro and Maria II.

Dom Miguel's Usurpation and Overthrow.

In 1828 Dom Miguel, with the support of the Apostolic party, suppressed the Portuguese constitution and usurped his niece's crown, causing himself to be proclaimed King of Portugal in June, 1828, as an absolute monarch, and punished the supporters of constitutional government with execution, imprisonment and banishment. But his usurped reign lasted only a few years. Dom Pedro, who had been compelled to abdicate the crown of Brazil in 1831 in favor of his infant son, Dom Pedro II., returned to Portugal in 1832 to defend his daughter's right to the crown of that kingdom. The constitutional party rallied to Dom Pedro's support; and in 1834, after a bloody civil war of two years, during which Dom Pedro was aided by Great Britain and France, the usurper Dom Miguel was forced to renounce his pretensions and to leave the kingdom; whereupon the constitution which the usurper had suppressed was reëstablished, and Maria II. was undisputed sovereign of Portugal. After Dom Pedro's early death the Portuguese constitution was subjected to many attacks and alterations.

Spanish American War of Independence.

For three hundred years Mexico, or New Spain, and most of South America had groaned under Spain's tyranny; the Spanish Americans being forbidden to produce anything not prescribed by Spain, and not being allowed to engage in any manufacturing industry, nor to trade with any nation except Spain under pain of death. Popular insurrections broke out in Mexico and South America in 1810. San Martin freed Buenos Ayres, Chili and Peru by his victories at Chacabaco and Maypu, in Chili (February 12, 1817, and April 5, 1818);

and Simon Bolivar liberated Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador by his victories at Boyaca and Carabobo, in Colombia (August 7, 1819, and June 24, 1821). The chief revolutionary leaders in Mexico were Hidalgo and Moralos, and afterward Iturbide. Spanish power was forever swept from the American continent by the decisive victories of the Colombians under General Sucre at Junin and Ayacucho, in Peru (August 6, and December 9, 1824). The Spanish Americans received aid from Great Britain and the United States; the two great Anglo-Saxon nations frustrating the project of the Holy Alliance to restore Spain's lost dominions in the New World, the great British statesman George Canning, as Foreign Secretary in Lord Liverpool's Ministry, instigating President James Monroe to issue his celebrated state-paper, the *Monroe Doctrine*, against any such project as that contemplated by the Holy Alliance against the recently-liberated Spanish American colonies. The Spanish colonies in Central and South America became independent republics; and one of them—Bolivia—was named in honor of General Simon Bolivar. Mexico first became an independent empire under Iturbide, but he quarreled with the Mexican Congress and was driven off in 1823, and afterward returning was shot; and in 1824 Mexico became an independent republic, General Guadalupe Victoria being the first President. Paraguay was ruled by the Dictator, Dr. Francia, from 1812 to 1840. Since the establishment of their independence Mexico and the South American republics have been constantly distracted by revolutions and civil wars.

Spanish American Republics.

The account of these events will be more fully dwelt upon in a subsequent portion of this work, and a mere sketch is given in this connection in order to show the relation of this Spanish American Revolution with the revolutions in Europe during the same period. These Spanish American republics have made but little progress in material prosperity and in free institutions, and are republics merely in name, their Presidents being mostly dictators. The Roman Catholic religion is established by law in most of them, and Church and State is closely connected. The whites, of Spanish descent, form but a comparatively-small proportion of the population; the greater portion of the inhabitants being Indians and mixed races.

Brazil.

The most tranquil of the South American nations has been Brazil, which, after it had ceased to be a Portuguese colony and had become an independent empire by its peaceable separation from Portugal in 1822, entered upon a new career under princes of the same Braganza dynasty which reigned over its mother country and which occupied the Brazilian throne until the peaceful revolution which established the Brazilian Republic in 1889.

SECTION IV.—GREECE'S WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (A. D. 1821–1829).

The Hetæria.

For three and a half centuries Greece had groaned under the barbarous yoke of Turkish despotism, but about the close of the eighteenth century a secret society called the *Hetæria* began to further a desire for Grecian independence.

Ypsilanti's Proclamation.

On the 7th of March, 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek, then serving as a general in the Russian army, proclaimed, from Moldavia, the independence of Greece, and at the same time assured his countrymen of the assistance of Russia in their approaching struggle for liberty.

Russia's Attitude.

But the influence of Prince Metternich, who, at the Congress of Laybach, opposed giving countenance to any revolt against legitimate authority, prevented the Czar Alexander from giving any support to the Greeks, although he was at heart in sympathy with them.

Revolt in the Morea.

Soon after the proclamation of Ypsilanti, an insurrection against Turkish authority broke out in the village of Suda, in the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus. The movement rapidly spread over the whole peninsula, and the insurgents declared that their purpose was to defend Christianity and civilization against Mohammedanism and barbarism. In the Morea the wild and warlike Mainotes of the Taygetus rose under the leadership of Mauromichali and Kolokotroni, the other inhabitants of the peninsula soon following, and a more systematic warfare was planned by Demetrius Ypsilanti, Alexander's brother. The Greeks in Livadia and the islands of the Archipelago fought successfully, their valor recalling to memory the feats of their ancestors, though very little Hellenic blood flows in the veins of the modern Greeks.

Assassination of the Greek Patriarch.

The rage of the Turks became indescribable; and the gray-haired Gregorios, Patriarch of Constantinople, the supreme head of the Greek Church, was hung before his church-door with a number of his bishops, on Easter-day, 1821; while the Greeks in the Turkish capital were massacred or banished.

Ypsilanti's Defeat and Flight.

The *Sacred Band* of the Greeks in Wallachia, under the leadership of Alexander Ypsilanti, was annihilated by the Turks in the sanguinary battle of Dragaschan, on the 19th of June, 1821. The Greeks, like their ancestors at Thermopylæ, fought with the courage of desperation. Ypsilanti fled into the Austrian dominions, where he was siezed and kept a prisoner for years in a Hungarian fortress.

Greek Successes.

In August, 1821, the Greeks captured Navarino, and in October following the strong fortress of Tripolizza, where they put eight thousand Turks to the sword. On the 5th and 6th of September, 1821, the

Greek General Ulysses defeated a large Turkish force near the famous pass of Thermopylæ. The peninsula of Cassandra was afterward taken by the Turks, who put three thousand Greeks to the sword and carried many women and children into slavery.

Greek Provisional Government.

In the beginning of 1822 a Greek Congress assembled at Epidaurus. On the 13th of January a provisional constitution was proclaimed; and on the 27th of the same month a manifesto was issued, announcing the union of the Greeks under a central government, under the presidency of Alexander Mavrocordato. The Greek leaders often quarreled among themselves; but, notwithstanding this, fortune was, in general, on the side of the struggling patriots until the summer of 1825.

Desolation of Scio.

In March, 1822, the inhabitants of the beautiful island of Scio, the ancient Chios, rose in revolt and put the Turkish garrison to the sword. In April a force of Asiatic Turks spread over Scio, plundering and massacring the inhabitants and reducing the beautiful island to a desert. Forty thousand Sciots were put to the sword, and many women and children were sold into slavery. Soon afterward one hundred and fifty Greek villages in Macedonia were destroyed and many of the inhabitants were put to the sword, thus arousing horror and indignation throughout Europe.

Barbarous Warfare.

The war was carried on by both parties in the most barbarous manner. Thousands of Greeks were put to the sword by the enraged Turks, and when the Greeks had the opportunity they took a bloody revenge on their cruel foes. Many of the Turkish vessels were blown up by the Greek fire-ships. On the 12th of December, 1822, the strong Turkish fortress of Napoli di Romania surrendered to the Greeks after a furious assault.

Greek Fire-ships.

Victory and Death of Marco Bozzaris.

On the 20th of August, 1823, a Turkish army of ten thousand men was met and defeated by five hundred Greeks under the heroic Suliot leader, Marco Bozzaris, who was killed in the moment of victory. The last words of this valiant patriot were: "Could a Suliot leader die a nobler death?"

"They fought like brave men, long and well;
They piled the ground with Moslem slain;
They conquered—but Bozzaris fell,
Bleeding at every vein.
His few surviving comrades saw
His smile when rang their proud hurrah,
And the red field was won;
Then saw in death his eyelids close,
Calmly, as to a night's repose,
Like flowers at set of sun.

* * * *

"Bozzaris! with the storied brave
Greece nurtured in her glory's time,
Rest thee; there is no prouder grave,
Even in her own proud clime.
We tell thy doom without a sigh;
For thou art Freedom's now, and Fame's—
One of the few, the immortal names
That were not born to die."

Philhellenic Societies and Foreign Volunteers.

Though the crowned heads of the Holy Alliance, refusing to countenance revolt against constituted authority, held aloof from the struggle in Greece with cold indifference, popular sympathy was strongly manifested in Europe and America for the Greek patriots, and *Philhellenic* societies were formed to aid the Greek cause; while volunteers flocked to Greece from every part of Europe, among whom was the illustrious English poet, Lord Byron, who died at Missolonghi, April 19, 1824. In the United States of America such great statesmen as Webster and Clay pleaded the Greek cause.

Capture of Ipsara.

During the year 1824 the Turks reduced the strongly-fortified rocky island of Ipsara, but after two thousand Turks had entered the last fort the Greeks blew it up and perished with their foes. In 1825

Ibrahim Pasha in the Morea.

Ibrahim Pasha, son of the celebrated Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, whom the Sultan had induced to assist in the suppression of the Grecian rebellion, landed in the Morea with twenty-five thousand Egyptian troops and spread desolation throughout the whole peninsula. Ibrahim Pasha captured Navarino, but the Turks were defeated for the third time at Missolonghi.

Siege and Fall of Missolonghi.

In the latter part of 1825 Ibrahim Pasha, with twenty-five thousand men, laid siege to Missolonghi. After many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed by the Greeks, Missolonghi fell into the hands of Ibrahim Pasha on the 22d of April, 1826. The Greek garrison of eighteen hundred men cut their way through the lines of the besiegers and fled to Athens. Many of the inhabitants fled from the city when the victorious foe entered, but some were pursued and captured; and those who remained in the city, about one thousand in number, mostly old men, women and children, blew themselves up in the mines, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. The fall of Athens in 1827 seemed to ruin the cause of the Greeks, but their deliverance was at hand.

Nicholas I. of Russia and His War with Persia.

The Emperor Alexander I. of Russia died December 1, 1825; and as his brother, the Grand Duke Constantine, had already renounced the Russian crown, his younger brother NICHOLAS ascended the Russian throne, after personally suppressing a bloody insurrection in St. Petersburg in favor of Constantine. The new Czar was favorable to the Greek cause, although his attention was first occupied by a war with

THE BATTLE OF NAVARINO

From the Painting by A. L. Garnevay

Persia, with which Russia had been at peace since the Treaty of Gulistan, in October, 1813; but the victories of the Russians under General Paskiewitsch over the Persians ended this war by the Treaty of Turkomanshee, February 21, 1828, by which Persia lost still more territory in the Caucasus region, and the Russian frontier was advanced to Mount Ararat and the river Aras, the present boundary between Russia and Persia.

Canning in Great Britain.

The death of Lord Liverpool in England, in 1827, was followed by the elevation of the able and enlightened statesman, George Canning, to the head of the British Ministry—a statesman who had not forgotten his youthful dreams or his enthusiasm for the liberation of Greece.

Attitude of France.

In France the government was obliged to pay some attention to the clamors of the Philhellenists, especially after the horror excited throughout Europe by the bloody massacre of the Janizaries in Constantinople by order of Sultan Mahmoud II., in June, 1826.

Greece Aided by Great Britain, France and Russia.

At the proposal of the great English statesman and Prime Minister, Canning, Great Britain, France and Russia concluded a treaty at London, July 6, 1827, to secure the independence of Greece. To enforce this treaty, a combined British, French and Russian fleet, under the command of the English Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, was sent to the Grecian waters. The refusal of Ibrahim Pasha to evacuate the Morea occasioned the battle of Navarino, on the 20th of October, 1827, in which the allied fleet totally annihilated the Turko-Egyptian fleet.

Battle of Navarino.

Russo-Turkish War of 1828–29.

Sultan Mahmoud II. in a rage expelled the ambassadors of the three allied powers from Constantinople, and behaved so insolently toward them that Russia declared war against Turkey, April 26, 1828. A Russian army of one hundred and fifteen thousand men under Count Wittgenstein crossed the Pruth, May 7, 1828, and invaded the Turkish tributary principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Russians were repulsed in an assault upon Brahilov, June 15, 1828, but took that fortress by capitulation, June 20, 1828. By July 2, 1828, the Russians had taken six other Turkish fortresses.

Russian Successes.

Capture of Varna.

A Russian flotilla attacked the Turkish flotilla at Varna and captured fourteen vessels, August 7, 1828. The Russians under General Geismar routed the Turks at Widin, September 20, 1828. The Russians took Varna by storm, after a siege of two months, October 11, 1828; its garrison having been reduced from twenty-two thousand men to six thousand.

Russian Attacks on Shumla and Silistria.

The capture of Varna gave the Russians command of the Turkish coast of the Black Sea; and the Russian Admiral Heyden officially announced the blockade of the Dardanelles, October 15, 1828. The

Turks retired into the strong mountain fortress of Shumla, in July, 1828, where they had more than forty thousand men under Hussein Pasha. The main Russian army, forty-five thousand strong, under Count Wittgenstein, marched against Shumla while the operations were going on before Varna; but after the fall of Varna the Russian army fell back from Shumla, October 15, 1828. The Russians laid siege to Silistria in September, 1828, but raised the siege November 10, 1828, abandoning their heavy artillery.

Russia's Demands Rejected by the Sultan.

In the meantime the Russians under General Paskiewitsch had achieved a series of brilliant victories in Asiatic Turkey. Although the Turkish losses in Europe and Asia were two principalities, three pashalics, fourteen fortresses and three castles, the Ottoman Porte rejected the terms of peace offered by the Czar Nicholas through the British ambassador, Lord Heytesbury. These terms were a war-indemnity and security against future violation of treaties.

Ibrahim Pasha's Evacuation.

In the meantime Ibrahim Pasha had been compelled by the French fleet and a French army under General Maisson to evacuate the Morea and to restore to his Greek prisoners their freedom, and Count John Capo d'Istria was chosen President of the Grecian states.

Demand of the Allies.

In January, 1829, the Sultan received a protocol from the three allied powers, declaring that they took Greece under their own protection and that they would consider another Turkish invasion of Greece as an attack upon themselves.

Russian Victories at Shumla and Silistria.

Sultan Mahmoud II. prepared for a new campaign against the Russians. Marshal Diebitsch superseded Count Wittgenstein as Russian commander-in-chief, February 21, 1829. Marshal Diebitsch laid siege to Silistria, May 17, 1829, and repulsed an attack by the Grand Vizier's army that day, the Turks losing two thousand killed. A month later—June 17, 1829—Marshal Diebitsch defeated the Grand Vizier in a great battle near Shumla; the Turks losing six thousand killed, many taken prisoners, forty-three cannon and all their ammunition and baggage. Silistria surrendered to the Russians, June 30, 1829; its garrison of eight thousand men and the armed inhabitants becoming prisoners of war; while two hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, eighty stand of colors, two three-tailed pashas and the entire Turkish flotilla were also taken.

Russian Successes.

Marshal Diebitsch forced the passes of the Balkan mountains, July 22, 1829, and defeated seven thousand Turks under the Seraskier Abdulrahman, taking four hundred prisoners, twelve cannon and seven standards. The next day, July 23, 1829, the Russian army captured Mesembria with twenty standards, fifteen cannon and two thousand prisoners; and on the same day the Russians took Achioli with fourteen cannon, ammunition, etc. Upon reaching the Black Sea coast

the Russian army was able to coöperate with the Russian fleet under Admiral Greig. Bourgas was taken with ten pieces of artillery and an abundance of military stores, June 24, 1829. Aidos was taken with the entire Turkish camp and its military stores, June 25, 1829. The Russians captured Adrianople, the second city of the Ottoman Empire, August 20, 1829.

Capture of Adrianople.

By the Peace of Adrianople, September 14, 1829, Turkey recovered Moldavia and Wallachia and all the towns which the Russians had taken in Bulgaria and Roumelia. Moldavia was to have an independent administration and free trade; and Russia was to have free commerce throughout the Ottoman Empire and with all nations at peace with Turkey, and free navigation of the Black Sea. Turkey also agreed to pay a war-indemnity to Russia, besides an indemnification for the losses of Russian subjects, and to acknowledge the independence of Greece; but as the question of boundaries required a long time for settlement, the Greeks continued the war for some time longer; and Miaulis, the Greek admiral, blew up the Grecian fleet rather than surrender it to the enemy.

Peace of Adrianople.

During the Revolution the Greek leaders often quarreled among themselves; and in 1831 the Greek President, Count John Capo d'Istria, who, by his selection of bad advisers, had made himself unpopular, was assassinated by the brothers Mauromichali as he was about to enter a church. The three allied powers—Great Britain, France and Russia—having determined to erect Greece into a constitutional monarchy, they formed the Kingdom of the Hellenes out of the Morea, Livadia, part of Thessaly, the Cyclades and Negropont, the crown being bestowed on Otho, a prince of the royal house of Bavaria, who arrived at Nauplia in 1833, and reigned as King of Greece until he was hurled from the throne by the Revolution of 1862, being compelled by a popular demand and uprising to dismiss and banish his German favorites in 1843. Greece has since striven to raise herself to the position of a civilized nation, the forms of which she has assumed without being able to free herself from the conditions of barbarism and a life of brigandage.

Assassination of Capo d'Istria.

King Otho I.

SECTION V.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1830 IN FRANCE, BELGIUM, POLAND, GERMANY, ITALY.

As we have seen, the liberal Ministry which had been forced upon King Charles X. by the voice of public opinion, in August, 1829, was dismissed, and an ultra-royalist Ministry with Prince Jules de Polignac at its head was appointed. This new Ministry endeavored to strengthen the royal power, and was extremely unpopular with the

Charles X. and the Ultra Royalist Ministry of Prince Polignac.

French people, who accused Polignac and his colleagues of a design for the subversion of popular liberty and the reëstablishment of the ancient despotism; but Polignac blindly persevered in his arbitrary schemes.

Royal Speech and Dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies.

At the opening of the French Chambers, on the 2d of March, 1830, the speech from the throne clearly announced the king's determination to overcome by force any obstacles that might be thrown in the way of his government, and contained a threat to deprive the French people of the rights granted them by the Charter. There was a large majority against the Ministry in the Chamber of Deputies; and that body returned a frank reply to the royal speech, declaring that a concurrence did not exist between the views of the government and the wishes of the people. The king, declaring his intention to support his Ministers, prorogued the Chambers; and on the 17th of May a royal ordinance declared them dissolved and ordered elections for a new Chamber.

War with Algiers.

In the meantime the king and his Ministers, with the view of overcoming their unpopularity by gratifying the passion of the French people for military glory, declared war against Algiers; the Dey having refused to pay long-standing claims of French citizens and having insulted the honor of France by striking the French Consul. A naval expedition consisting of ninety-seven vessels, carrying more than forty thousand troops, and commanded by General Bourmont, the Minister of War, sailed from Toulon on the 10th of May, 1830, and

Capture of Algiers.

on the 14th reached the African shores. The city of Algiers was captured on the 5th of July, 1830, with trifling loss on the part of the French. The Dey fled to Italy, and his treasures fell into the hands of the conquerors.

Increased Liberal Majority.

The news of the capture of Algiers occasioned much rejoicing in France, but did nothing toward gaining popularity for the Ministry, public feeling being too decided to be thus easily affected. The elections for a new Chamber of Deputies resulted in giving the liberals a much larger majority than they had in the Chamber lately dissolved.

Three Royal Ordinances.

The Ministry now resolved to set the popular will at defiance by measures directly subversive of the constitutional Charter; and on the morning of the 26th of July, 1830, three royal ordinances were issued —the first dissolving the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, the second arbitrarily altering the mode of election and the third suspending the freedom of the press. To all who were acquainted with the popular feeling it was apparent that these arbitrary measures, so subversive of popular rights, could be executed only by force; and yet no preparations had been made for this. So blind and infatuated were the king and his Ministers that they did not dream of any re-

sistance on the part of the people. The king went on a hunting excursion, and the Prince de Polignac gave a splendid dinner to his colleagues. No sooner had the Paris *Moniteur*, the official government newspaper organ, published the three royal ordinances on that very day than symptoms of revolution manifested themselves. In the evening mobs collected in Paris, lamps were demolished, the windows of Prince de Polignac's hotel were broken, and cries of "Down with the Ministry!" and "The Charter forever!" were heard.

Disturbances in Paris.

On the morning of the 27th, July, 1830, in defiance of the royal ordinance suspending the liberty of the press, the conductors of the liberal journals in Paris printed and distributed their papers as usual; but their types were soon seized and their presses broken by the police. Marshal Marmont, who was placed in chief command of the government troops, endeavored to assist the police in preserving order; and the Ministry declared Paris in a state of siege. The streets were kept clear by the guards for the greater part of the day, and Marshal Marmont wrote to the king that quiet was restored; but during the night the citizens demolished the lamps, procured arms and barricaded the streets with paving stones torn up for the purpose.

Revolution Begun, July 27, 1830.

On the morning of July 28th the streets of Paris were filled with armed citizens, who raised the glorious tri-colored flag in every direction. They carried with trifling loss the detached guard-houses, the arsenal and the powder magazine. At nine o'clock the tricolor was seen to wave from the spire of the Church of Notre Dame, and at eleven from the central tower of the Hôtel de Ville. Carriages and omnibuses were thrown on the sides of the streets to obstruct the passage of the troops. The troops were exposed to a severe fire from the windows, barricades and street corners. Tiles and stones were hurled upon them from the tops of houses, while oil and boiling water were showered upon them from the windows. The king and his Ministers and Marshal Marmont were greatly surprised when they discovered that what they had at first considered merely a riot had assumed the formidable aspect of a revolution. During the night the pavements were torn up and the trees in the Boulevards cut down to raise obstructions for the passage of the troops.

Street Fighting on July 28.

The Tricolor.

The contest was renewed with terrible fury on the morning of July 29th, and General Lafayette appeared among the insurgents and assumed the command of the National Guard. At noon several regiments of the line deserted to the people. Thus reinforced, the mob stormed the Louvre and the Tuileries, from the windows of which they opened a tremendous fire upon the Swiss and royal guards. The brave defenders of the throne, unable to make any further resistance to the populace, succeeded only with great difficulty in effecting a

July 29.

Lafayette and the National Guard.

Revolution Successful.

retreat; and at three o'clock in the afternoon the Paris Revolution of July ended in the complete triumph of the people. The Ministers now resigned their offices, and the king signed an order for the repeal of the obnoxious ordinances; but it was too late. The Parisians had already resolved that Charles X. should no longer reign. The Deputies to the new Chambers in Paris organized a provisional government under the banker Lafitte, Casimir Pèrier, Odillon-Barrot and others, and decreed that the National Guard should be reorganized and placed under the command of that consistent friend of rational freedom, the Marquis de Lafayette.

Abdication and Flight of Charles X.

On the 31st of July, 1830, Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, son of Philippe Egalité, accepted the office of Lieutenant-General of the French kingdom. On the 2d of August Charles X. formally abdicated the throne of France; and his son, the Dauphin, resigned his rights in favor of the king's infant grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux. No attention was paid to these proceedings. The Paris mob prepared to march in thousands to Rambouillet, to which place Charles had retired; but he did not wait for their coming. Recollecting too well the awful period of 1789, when another Paris mob marched to Versailles, he fled to England, and for a time took up his residence in Holyrood palace, near Edinburgh. He afterward went to Germany, and died of a broken heart at Goritz, in Austria, November 6, 1836.

Louis Philippe, "King of the French."

In the meantime the newly-elected French Chambers assembled in Paris; and, after some debate, the constitutional party triumphed over the republicans and it was determined that the government of France should remain a limited monarchy, and the crown was conferred on the Duke of Orleans, who, on the 9th of August, 1830, took the oath to support the constitutional Charter and ascended the throne of France with the title of Louis Philippe I., *King of the French.* Louis Philippe owed his elevation chiefly to the venerable Lafayette, who, believing the French people still unfit for a republic, preferred "a throne surrounded with republican institutions." Presenting the new *Citizen King* to the people, in front of the Chambers, Lafayette exclaimed: "Now we have the best of republics!"

Consequences of the Paris Revolution of July, 1830.

The Paris Revolution of July, 1830, occasioned a violent shock throughout Europe and gave the death-blow to the Holy Alliance, which had already received a severe shock by the death of the Czar Alexander I., in 1825. Revolutionary movements occurred in Belgium, Poland, Germany and Italy, which alarmed absolute monarchs and threatened consequences fatal to the general tranquillity of Europe. The revolutionary outbreaks were quelled only after a two years' struggle; and though the influence of the three absolute powers—Austria, Prussia and Russia—was sufficiently strong to restore absolu-

tism in most states, free opinions gained greater prominence and public opinion grew powerful enough to defy all the efforts of state police and bureaucracy. In the West of Europe, through the influence of Great Britain and France, constitutional government and civil freedom generally prevailed. The absolute powers of Europe did not attempt to undo the work of the French Revolution of July, 1830; and the French government of the "Citizen King," Louis Philippe, assumed a pacific attitude toward the other nations of Europe and endeavored to win the support of all parties and factions in France by a conciliatory policy.

Union of Holland and Belgium.

The effects of the July Revolution of Paris first displayed themselves in Belgium. The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, in utter disregard of differences in language, religion and interests, had united Holland and Belgium into one monarchy, designated the *Kingdom of the Netherlands*, under the government of a prince of the House of Orange, or Nassau. From the time of the incorporation of Belgium with Holland the Belgians suffered the most unmitigated oppression from the Dutch king; and the Hollanders endeavored to force their own language, laws and religion upon the Belgians, who also were obliged to share in the Dutch national debt and in the high taxes. The Protestant courts were entrusted with the supervision of the education of the Catholic youth in Belgium. When the Belgian press denounced the conduct of the Dutch government the writers were fined, imprisoned, or banished from the country. The alliance of the Belgian liberal party, which was struggling for political freedom and cooperated with the French liberal party, with the Catholic Ultramontane party, which demanded freedom of education, was designated by the Dutch king, in his speech from the throne, as "infamous."

Dutch Oppression of the Belgians.

Outbreak in Brussels.

Thinking the opportunity favorable and encouraged by the success of the Paris Revolution of July, 1830, the Belgians were seized with the revolutionary spirit; and the people of Brussels rose in insurrection on the 25th of August, 1830, after the representation of the opera, *The Mute of Portici*, the mob destroying the printing-house of a pro-Dutch journal, the palace of the Minister of Justice, the residence of the Director of Police, etc., and, after an obstinate struggle of four days, expelled the Dutch authorities and garrison from the city. To prevent any further outrages by the mob, a civic guard and a committee were organized, to manage affairs until the radical and the Catholic ultramontane parties united themselves in a Belgian National Congress under the guidance of Potter. The movement spread rapidly, and in a short time the whole of Belgium was in revolt against the authority of the King of Holland. The Dutch were repulsed in an attack upon Brussels, and the Belgian insurgents proceeded against

Belgian Declaration of Independence.

Antwerp to drive the Dutch from that city. Thereupon the Dutch General Chassé retired into the strong citadel with his troops and cannonaded the town for several hours with three hundred pieces of artillery, thus destroying an immense amount of valuable property. This proceeding caused much exasperation in Belgium; and in November, 1830, the Belgian National Congress declared the independence of Belgium and the exclusion of the House of Orange from the Belgian throne.

London Conference.

While the war between the Dutch and the Belgians was in progress, the representatives of the five great powers—Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia—held a conference in London, where, after long diplomatic negotiation, it was determined to separate Belgium from Holland and to arrange the boundaries between the two countries in an equitable manner.

Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, "King of the Belgians."

Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a relative of the British royal family and who was shortly afterward married to a daughter of Louis Philippe, King of the French, received the crown of Belgium with the title of LEOPOLD I., *King of the Belgians.* King Leopold I. conciliated the Belgian liberal party by granting his subjects a very liberal and free representative constitution, and placated the Roman Catholic clergy by granting the full and complete separation of Church and State. The King of Holland vainly attempted to subdue the Belgians, who were now aided by Great Britain and France. On the 23d of December, 1832, the Dutch army which had held possession of Antwerp was compelled to surrender to the French army under Marshal Gerard. Thereupon Belgium assumed her place as an independent kingdom among the nations of the earth. Since her separation from Holland, Belgium has prospered wonderfully in every branch of industry and social improvement.

Succeeding Kings.

WILLIAM I., who had been King of Holland since 1814, abdicated in 1840 and was succeeded by his son WILLIAM II., who died in 1849 and was succeeded by his son WILLIAM III. Leopold I. of Belgium reigned until his death, December 9, 1865, when he was succeeded by his son LEOPOLD II.

Kingdom of Poland.

The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, erected Poland into a kingdom, with a Diet and a constitution of its own; but the sovereign power of the kingdom was vested in the Czar of Russia, under the title of *King of Poland.* The Poles were soon disappointed in the hopes which they had entertained that the Emperor Alexander would protect them in the enjoyment of the rights and privileges granted them by the new constitution. Before long the principal offices in Poland were filled with Russians; the article of the new constitution granting freedom of the press was annulled, and publicity of debate in the Polish Diet was

abolished. On the death of the Emperor Alexander I., in 1825, and the accession of his brother Nicholas to the throne of Russia the nominal administration of affairs in Poland was intrusted to a Pole; but all the real power was invested in the Archduke Constantine, the brother of the Emperor-king. Constantine was an unscrupulous tyrant. His despotic and cruel course revived the old spirit of Polish freedom and nationality, and the successful revolutions in France and Belgium in 1830 urged the Poles to a rebellion against the Russian power, the Poles believing that the French would come to their assistance in throwing off the yoke of Russian despotism. Secret organizations were formed, whose object was to bring about the restoration of Polish independence and the reunion, under one government, of those portions of Poland which had been absorbed by Austria, Prussia and Russia.

Archduke Constantine and Russian Tyranny.

On the evening of the 20th of November, 1830, the students of the Cadet school at Warsaw attempted to seize Constantine; while another party summoned the people to arms. Constantine escaped from Poland after a severe conflict in which several hundred of his guards were killed. The insurgents forced the arsenal at Warsaw, and before the close of the day forty thousand men were in arms.

Revolt at Warsaw.

The insurgent Poles established a provisional government, with Adam Czartoryski, General Chlopiki and others at its head; and great enthusiasm prevailed in the Polish capital. The provisional government at Warsaw appointed Chlopiki dictator; and the Polish Diet, which was hastily assembled, invested Prince Radzivil with absolute power; but the Polish aristocracy, alarmed at the violence of the republican and democratic clubs at Warsaw, opposed every attempt to excite a popular war and refused to liberate the Polish peasants, from selfish motives, thus rejecting the only means by which Poland could be saved; and, instead of using the newly-aroused military spirit and fresh enthusiasm of the Polish people, the provisional government, which belonged to the Polish aristocracy, decided upon negotiation, placing their hopes upon the promises of French diplomats. The Diet pronounced the deposition of the princely House of Romanoff in Poland.

Polish Provisional Government.

On the 5th of February, 1831, after two months of unsuccessful attempts at negotiation, the Czar Nicholas rejecting all terms but unconditional submission on the part of the Poles, a Russian army of two hundred thousand men, under the command of Field-Marshal Diebitsch, appeared in Poland. An indecisive action occurred on the 5th, February, 1831; and on the 25th a desperate engagement occurred between forty thousand Poles under Prince Radzivil and one hundred thousand Russians, and when the shades of night closed the combat the dead bodies of ten thousand Russians covered the sanguinary field.

Russian Invasion of Poland.

Polish Successes.

On the night of the 31st of March, 1831, the Polish army under General Skrzynecki fought and routed twenty thousand Russians. The Poles rapidly followed up their advantages, and before the close of April the Russian forces were driven out of Poland. Another Polish force under Dwernicki sought to arouse Volhynia to revolt and surprised the world by his bold and skillful retreat upon Austrian territory.

Battle of Ostrolenka.

After concentrating his forces at Minsk, Skrzynecki crossed the Bug and advanced to Ostrolenka, where his army, led by General Bem, encountered an army of sixty thousand Russians under Field-Marshal Diebitsch on the 26th of May, 1831. The carnage was frightful. No quarter was given by either party. The Poles were defeated with the loss of five thousand men. The victorious Russians also lost heavily, and three of their generals were among the slain.

Polish Dissensions.

Owing to the dissensions among the Polish leaders, to party spirit, to treachery and the siren voices of French go-betweens, the insurrection rapidly declined in strength after the battle of Ostrolenka. In June, 1831, both Field-Marshal Diebitsch and the Archduke Constantine met with sudden deaths. The populace of Warsaw ascribed the failure of the revolution to treachery on the part of the aristocracy, thirty of whom were sacrificed to the popular fury. The Polish dictator, Czartoryski, the successor of Chlopiki, fled in terror to General Dembinski's camp; whereupon the Polish Diet invested Krukowiecki with the supreme power.

Fall of Warsaw.

At length a Russian army of one hundred thousand men, under the command of General Paskiewitsch, advanced on Warsaw. At Wola, the ancient place of the election of the Polish kings, the attacks of the Russians were repulsed, and the heroic deeds of the Fourth Regiment were celebrated in songs. On the 7th of September, 1831, after two days of furious assaults, during which twenty thousand Russians and ten thousand Poles laid down their lives, the cowardly dictator, Krukowiecki, surrendered Warsaw and Praga to Paskiewitsch. The main body of the Polish army retreated from Warsaw and soon afterward dispersed, while the Polish Diet and provisional government, with the few troops that remained, fled into the Prussian territory, where the Polish warriors were disarmed and detained until the complete subjection of Poland, when they were allowed to return to their native land under an assurance of amnesty; but thousands of them rejected the Czar's grace, preferring a life of exile in foreign lands rather than gaze quietly upon the gradual extinction of their country. The sympathy of the German people, who received and entertained the unfortunate Polish exiles in their melancholy sojourn, was an alleviation of their misery.

Poland's Subjugation.

The fall of Warsaw was the death-blow to the insurrection, and unfortunate Poland again groaned under the iron heel of Russian despotism. Many of the Polish insurgents retired into voluntary exile in foreign lands; and eighty thousand of those who remained and fell into the hands of the Russians, including generals, soldiers and nobles, were consigned to the dungeons and mines of Siberia in one year.

Poland's Subjection.

Poland was deprived of her Constitution, her Diet and her State Council by the *Organic Statute*, and was incorporated with the Russian Empire with a separate government and administration of justice; and Polish nationality and independence seemed extinguished, while the Russo-Greek Church was established in the conquered country. Thereafter, for several decades, General Paskiewitsch ruled in humbled Warsaw as the Czar's viceroy, or lieutenant.

Subsequent Polish Efforts.

The Polish exiles afterwards vainly sought to effect their country's restoration by conspiracies and insurrections in Cracow, Gallicia and Posen; but the results of these foolhardy efforts were additional persecutions and eventually the incorporation of the free state, or republic, of Cracow with the Austrian Empire in 1846.

Outbreaks in Germany.

The Paris Revolution of July also occasioned some revolutionary movements in Germany. The German princes, fearing that the well-known desire of the French for the Rhine frontier might cause a new war between France and Germany, viewed the existing gulf between German princes and their subjects with alarm and hastened to prevent a general revolutionary movement by reasonable concessions and by recognizing accomplished reforms. Insurrections in the Kingdoms of Hanover and Saxony, in 1830, resulted in the establishment of liberal constitutions in those states and in the abolition of oppressive abuses and restrictions. In Brunswick the constitution was improved after the destruction of the palace by the mob, the expulsion of the despotic Duke Charles and the assumption of the government of the Duchy by his brother. In Hesse-Cassel, in 1831, the Elector William II. was compelled by an insurrection to give his state a free constitution; but the popular animosity toward his wife, the Countess Reichenbach (Lessonitz), a woman of inferior birth, soon afterward offended the Elector so highly that he elevated his son, the Electoral Prince, to the co-regentship and removed from Hesse with his wife and treasures.

Liberalism and Reaction.

The freedom of the press was introduced into Baden, and the liberals obtained the ascendency in the Chambers of Southern Germany and demanded alterations and reforms in the constitution and government; but their increasing audacity in speech and in writing, as particularly displayed at the Hambacher festival in Rhenish Bavaria, May 27, 1832, brought about a reaction and restriction. The pacific attitude of France under Louis Philippe and the suppression of the Polish

insurrection by Russia relieved the German state governments of all fear that the liberal movement might be supported from abroad.

Frankfort Outbreak and Reaction.

An effort of a few young madcaps, students, journalists and literary men to disperse the German Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main, April 3, 1833, aided the cause of the reactionary party, thus giving a great blow to the cause of liberalism in Germany and bringing on a severe persecution of the leaders of the liberal party. The guilty and the suspected were subjected to countless arrests and judicial examinations; and the prisons and the fortresses were filled with political offenders, while multitudes of fugitives were wandering in France and Switzerland. The censorship of the press was resumed with severity, the book-trade was watched and the privileges of the Estates were circumscribed. Thus again the efforts of the reform and progressive party were foiled by the violence and indiscreet zeal of some of its champions. The German state governments won a complete triumph, but they outraged the popular sense of justice and insulted public opinion by the use they made of their victory.

Outbreaks in Italy Crushed by Austria.

The success of the July Revolution of Paris roused the liberals in Italy to action, but their efforts resulted in defeat. Insurrections which broke out in Bologna, Parma and Modena were suppressed by Austrian troops; and the regents who had been expelled from the latter two states were restored to their governments. In the Papal States the bandits and convicts who were employed, along with the papal troops, in keeping down the revolutionists conducted themselves in so shameful a manner that the Austrian troops marched into that section to protect the country against its own soldiers. To prevent the Austrians from establishing their own supremacy in the Papal territory, the French, by a *Coup de Main*, February 23, 1832, seized upon Ancona, which they held for several years.

French Coup de Main.

King Charles Albert of Sardinia.

King Charles Felix of Sardinia died in 1831 and was succeeded by his cousin CHARLES ALBERT, who found his kingdom without an army and wholly subservient to Austria, whose power in Italy had been vastly increased by the failure of the revolt of 1830. Charles Albert was disposed to pursue a liberal policy toward his subjects, and was even willing to grant them the constitution which he had given them as regent; but he did not dare to do so, as that would have involved him in a war with Austria, for which his kingdom was unprepared.

Joseph Mazzini and Young Italy.

At this time a new party or secret league, called *Young Italy*, was organized by Joseph Mazzini, for the purpose of freeing Italy from foreign rule and uniting the whole country under one constitutional government. Mazzini was a man of great genius and a brilliant orator. He strove to induce Charles Albert of Sardinia to lead the popular movement and to drive the Austrians from Italy, but the Pied-

montese king was afraid to take so bold a step. Mazzini then sought to excite the Piedmontese army to revolt against Charles Albert, but was forced to leave the kingdom. He took refuge in Genoa, whence he led a foolish expedition into Savoy in January, 1833, to inaugurate a revolution. The movement failed, and he fled to London. This expedition so alarmed Charles Albert that he now began to consider the liberals his enemies and allied himself more closely with Austria and the Jesuits for the purpose of maintaining his authority. The Piedmontese people, indignant at the invasion of their country by Polish and other refugees who followed Mazzini, especially by the raid by way of Switzerland under the Polish general Ramorino, sustained their king in his reactionary policy; and for the next fourteen years Piedmont submitted quietly to the absolute government of its king.

Tyranny of King Ferdinand VII. of Spain.

King Ferdinand VII. of Spain—during whose reign the Spanish-American colonies erected themselves into independent republics, after a long and bloody struggle with the mother country—ruled in the most despotic manner, suppressing every germ of constitutional freedom. Ferdinand VII. secured the succession to the Spanish throne to his infant daughter Isabella, to the exclusion of his younger brother, Don Carlos, by abolishing the Salic Law—a law which had prevailed in all Bourbon kingdoms—March 29, 1830, a few months before Isabella's birth, in the same year, October, 1830; being influenced to such action by his fourth wife, Maria Christina, the mother of Isabella; thus offending the reactionary Apostolic party, which adhered to Don Carlos.

Queen Isabella II., A. D. 1833–1868.

When Ferdinand VII. died September 29, 1833, and his daughter Isabella II. succeeded to the throne of Spain, the Carlists, as the adherents of Don Carlos were called, who were numerous in the North of Spain, took up arms and involved the Spanish kingdom in civil war.

Carlist Revolt.

For the purpose of securing the liberal party in Spain to the support of the young queen, the queen-mother Maria Christina, who acted as regent during her daughter's minority, restored the Cortes Constitution of 1812 and allowed fugitives and outlaws to return to their homes.

Six Years of Civil War.

The friends of absolute monarchy sided with Don Carlos. The warlike Basques, in the North of Spain, inflamed by their priests and monks, especially drew their swords for Don Carlos and absolutism, under enterprising leaders, such as Zumalacarreguy and Cabrera. Many bloody battles were fought, and the queen-mother received aid from Great Britain and France. After the civil war had lasted six years and about three hundred thousand lives had been sacrificed, the Carlists were subdued; and the Christinos, as the supporters of the queen-mother Maria Christina were called, were completely triumphant.

Carlist Overthrow.

On August 31, 1839, General Espartero compelled the Carlist General Maroto to lay down his arms by capitulation in what was called the

Treaty of Pergara, and thus brought about the general pacification of the Spanish kingdom; Don Carlos and his family, with several officers and priests, seeking refuge in France.

Espartero, Narvaez and Maria Christina.

General Espartero, who had been created Duke of Vittoria, quarreled with the queen-mother soon after the close of the civil war; and after removing her from the regency, in May, 1841, he obtained control of the government; but he was overthrown in July, 1843, by General Narvaez, an adherent of the queen-mother, and was obliged to seek refuge in England, whereupon the queen-mother recovered her lost authority. Thereafter Maria Christina, and after her her daughter, Queen Isabella, carried on the Spanish government in complete accordance with the wishes of France. In 1853 a rebellion broke out in Spain in consequence of the despotic measures of the government; and in 1854 an insurrection in Madrid compelled the queen-mother to flee, whereupon a provisional government under Espartero was formed; but Queen Isabella II. afterward secured control of the government. General O'Donnell afterward directed the Spanish government and was practically dictator for some years.

Revolutions in Portugal.

In Portugal the reign of Maria II. was disturbed by a succession of revolutions. That of 1846–'47 would have deprived her of her crown but for the intervention of Great Britain, France and Spain.

SECTION VI.—GREAT BRITAIN'S REFORMS AND HER EMPIRE (A. D. 1815–1853).

Great Britain after Napoleon's Fall.

GREAT BRITAIN emerged from the long contest with France with increased power and national glory. Her empire was greatly extended in all parts of the world. Her supremacy on the sea was undisputed. Her wealth and commerce were increased. Her people enjoyed more civil and political liberty than any other in Europe. But, with all this national prosperity, the lower classes of the English people were sunk in extreme wretchedness and poverty.

Social Distress.

The long wars with France and the immense subsidies with which Great Britain had furnished her Continental allies raised her national debt to eight hundred million pounds sterling, and her people were borne down with the most oppressive taxes. During the Napoleonic wars the English manufacturers were enabled to carry on their business very successfully, because then the people of Continental Europe had been compelled to relinquish all peaceful pursuits. When peace returned the people of the Continent were enabled to return to their former occupations and to compete successfully with the English manufacturers. The result was the decline of the prosperity of English

manufacturers and the want of employment for the English workingmen, who were in consequence reduced to great distress.

Questions of Reform.

From the time of the beginning of the Ministry of the Earl of Liverpool, in 1812, the development of English life, which had been roughly arrested in 1792 by the reaction against the French Revolution, resumed its natural course. The anti-revolutionary terror which Edmund Burke had aroused had died out, and the social distress which followed in England after the renewal of the war with Bonaparte in 1803 led to the revival of questions of internal reform, which had been set aside ever since the outbreak of the French Revolution as Jacobinical. The natural relation of trade and commerce to the general wealth of the British nation at large was disturbed by the peculiar circumstances of the time. The war enriched the landowner, the capitalist, the manufacturer, the farmer; but it impoverished the poor; so that the rich became richer and the poor poorer. During this struggle with Napoleon began that war of classes—that severance between rich and poor, between employers and employed—which still constitutes the great difficulty of British politics.

English Wealth and Commerce.

Great Britain's increase of wealth was indeed enormous. As her navy ruled the seas the war had given her possession of the colonies of Spain, of Holland and of France; and, though her trade was for some time checked by the Berlin Decrees, Napoleon's efforts were soon rendered fruitless by the vast smuggling system which had sprung up along the coast of North Germany. Notwithstanding the serious blow to English commerce in consequence of the war with the United States from 1812 to 1815, English exports almost doubled during the last fifteen years of the war against Napoleon. The great inventions of Watt and Arkwright gave a fresh impetus to manufactures, and the consumption of raw cotton in the Lancashire mills rose during the same period from fifty million pounds to a hundred million. Agriculture had been forced into a feverish and unhealthy prosperity by the vast accumulation of capital and by a succession of bad seasons. Wheat reached famine prices, and the value of land rose in proportion to the price of wheat. Inclosures went on with immense rapidity, and every landowner's income was doubled; while the farmers were able to introduce improvements into the process of agriculture which altered the entire face of the country.

Unequal Distribution of Wealth.

Although the increase of English wealth was immense, that wealth was but partially distributed. During the struggle with Napoleon the population of England increased from ten millions to thirteen millions; and the rapid increase prevented a rise in the rate of wages, which would have advanced naturally in a corresponding degree with the growth of national wealth. Even the manufactures, which eventually benefited

the laboring classes, appeared at first rather to depress them. One of the first results of the introduction of labor-saving machinery was the ruin of many small trades which were carried on at home, and the consequent reduction of many families to pauperism. The terrible pressure of this transition from handicraft to machinery was exemplified in the winter of 1811 in the riots of the Luddites, who proceeded to break the new machines. These riots extended over the Northern and Midland counties of England and were suppressed only by military force.

Famine and Pauperism.

While labor was thus thrown out of its older grooves and the rate of wages kept down at an artificially-low rate by the rapid increase of population, the increase in the price of wheat, which brought wealth to the landowner and the farmer, brought only famine and death to the poor; as the wars with France and the United States cut off England from the vast corn-fields of Continental Europe and America. Scarcity of wheat caused a frightful increase of pauperism among the laboring classes. The poor rate increased fifty per cent.; and the increase of poverty produced its inevitable result—the increase of crime.

Question of Parliamentary Reform.

But the sense of national glory and national distress had little effect upon the course of British home politics. The Perceval Ministry had blindly opposed every project of change or reform, but the terror-struck reaction against the French Revolution which this opposition aimed to perpetuate was even then passing away. The policy of constitutional and administrative progress which the second William Pitt had abandoned reluctantly was revived by the publication of the *Edinburgh Review* in 1802 by a circle of young lawyers of Edinburgh—Brougham, Jeffrey, Horner and Mackintosh. A new vigor was given to political speculation by Jeremy Bentham's advocacy of the doctrine of Utility and his definition of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" as the aim of political action. The question of Parliamentary Reform was revived in 1809 by Sir Francis Burdett, but only fifteen members supported his motion. He was afterward arrested and committed to the Tower for publishing a pamphlet which he styled "a part of our fellow-subjects collected together by means which it is not necessary to describe," and he remained in imprisonment until the prorogation of Parliament.

Question of Catholic Emancipation.

The preseverance with which Canning pressed Catholic Emancipation year by year produced a far greater effect. Both efforts at reform were equally vain while Perceval lived; but, upon Lord Liverpool's accession to power, the development of a more liberal sentiment in the British nation was felt in the policy of "moderate concession" adopted by the new Ministry. Catholic Emancipation became an open

question in the Cabinet itself, and was adopted by the House of Commons in 1812, but was rejected by the House of Lords.

Corn Laws.

The scarcity caused by a succession of bad harvests was intensified by the selfish legislation of the landowners in Parliament. Conscious that the prosperity of English agriculture rested on the high price of corn produced by the war, these landowners in Parliament passed an act in 1815 prohibiting the introduction of foreign grain until wheat had reached famine prices.

Stagnation of Trade and Industry.

While the rapid development of English industry glutted the home and foreign markets with unsalable goods and thus brought English mills and factories to a stand still, English society was also disturbed by the great changes of employment consequent on a sudden return to peace after twenty-three years of war and by the disbanding of the immense British land and naval forces.

Riots and Radical Reformers.

The movement against machinery, which had been suppressed in 1812, revived in the formidable riots of the Luddites; while the distress of the rural poor brought about a great increase of crime. The steady opposition of Lord Liverpool's Ministry, in which Lord Castlereagh's influence was now predominant, to any project of political progress produced a serious popular feeling which brought into prominence a class of men whose demand for a "radical reform" in English institutions gained for them the name of *Radicals;* and more violent agitators indulged in treasonable disaffection and silly plots against the government. The dispersal of a mass meeting of eighty thousand persons at Manchester to petition for Parliamentary Reform, in August, 1819, by military force increased the unpopularity of the Ministry.

Lord Exmouth's Expedition against Algiers.

For several centuries the Barbary powers of Northern Africa had committed piracies on people of Christian countries. The commanders of vessels were kept as prisoners for ransom, and the crews were reduced to slavery. It had long been the custom of Christian nations to pay tribute to the pirates, as a bribe for the safety of their commerce; but the insolence of the corsairs induced the United States government, in 1815, to send a squadron under Commodore Decatur to humble them. Decatur compelled the Dey of Algiers to accept very humiliating conditions. The British government followed the example of the United States. In 1816 a British squadron under Lord Exmouth was sent against Algiers. Lord Exmouth appeared before the city of Algiers in May, 1816, and demanded the release of all Christians whom the Dey held in slavery. As Lord Exmouth received no answer to his demand, he opened a heavy cannonade upon the city, which was returned by the Algerine batteries; and, after several hours' fighting, the Dey's fleet and a great part of the city were destroyed. The fol-

Battle of Algiers.

lowing morning the Dey informed Lord Exmouth that he would set his Christian slaves and captives at liberty, and the firing ceased. Twelve hundred Christians were then released and allowed to return to their homes.

Death of George III.

While Great Britain was agitated and convulsed, the poor, old, blind and insane King George III. died at Windsor Castle, January 29, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age and the sixtieth of his reign —the longest reign in the annals of England. The Prince of Wales, who had been Prince Regent during the nine years of his father's insanity, then ascended the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover as GEORGE IV.

George IV., A. D. 1820–1830.

During the whole of the reign of George IV., A. D. 1820–1830, Great Britain was agitated by the question of Parliamentary Reform. The new king, while Prince Regent, had been called the "First Gentleman in Europe," because of his polished manners. He was fifty-eight years of age when be became King of Great Britain and of Hanover, on the death of his father George III., January 29, 1820. He was well educated, but had given himself up to a life of pleasure and to the society of gay and vicious companions. His folly and extravagance had as early as 1794 plunged him into a debt of seven hundred thousand pounds sterling.

His Bad Character.

Cato Street Conspiracy.

In about a month after his accession the violent temper of popular feeling in England was shown by the Cato Street Conspiracy in London, contrived by some desperate characters with Arthur Thistlewood at their head for the assassination of the whole Ministry, and which was punished by the hanging of Thistlewood and four of his accomplices.

Caroline of Brunswick, the Wife of George IV.

While Prince of Wales, George IV. had been induced by his father to marry his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel. This marriage occurred in 1795. The prince soon separated from his wife and accused her of unfaithfulness to her marriage-vows. After becoming king his first act was to renew this charge in the most public manner and to cause the Ministry to introduce a bill into Parliament to grant him a divorce from his wife and to degrade her on charges of misconduct while abroad on the Continent of Europe. Queen Caroline was as popular with the English people as her royal husband was odious to them, and their intense resentment at the attack upon her character and her title compelled the House of Lords to abandon the bill of divorce. The queen had been ably defended by Henry Brougham, afterward Lord Brougham.

Her Wrongs and Her Trial.

Her Sad End.

The king, less sensitive to public sentiment than the Lords, determined to oppose her coronation as his consort, and was supported in this step by his Privy Council. The Queen was equally resolved to main-

tain her rights; and on the morning of the coronation day, July 19, 1821, she appeared at the doors of Westminster Abbey and demanded admission, but was refused. This humiliation hastened her death. She fell seriously ill, and died of a broken heart, August 7, 1821. She left directions that her body should be taken to Germany and interred with those of her ancestors at Brunswick, and that the following inscription should be put upon her coffin: "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England."

Insult to Her Body.

The king's animosity was not appeased by his wife's death, and her body was subjected to insult. The procession which attended the body to Harwich on its way to the Continent was ordered not to pass through London; but the people were determined that it should pass through the city, and carried their point by tearing up the pavements and placing trees across the roads, thus bringing on a series of conflicts in which two persons were killed.

British Power in the East Indies.

In the meantime the British had been extending their power in the East. They had taken the coast of the island of Ceylon from the Dutch in 1796, and afterward took Trincomalee from them. The British conquest of the native Kingdom of Kandy in 1815 gave the British possession of the whole island of Ceylon, which has always been a crown colony. In 1819 a British colony was established at Singapore, in the peninsula of Malacca, as a market for the rich productions of the East Indies. The island of Java, which the British took from the Dutch in 1811, was restored to the latter in 1815; but the British retained the Cape of Good Hope, which they had finally conquered from the Dutch in 1806, and also retained the island of Mauritius, in the Indian Ocean, which they had taken from the French.

British Governors of India.

After the death of Lord Cornwallis, in 1805, Sir Hilaro Barlow became Governor-General of British India, and was succeeded by Lord Minto in 1807. In 1813 the Marquis of Hastings became Governor-General, and during his administration of ten years the freebooting Pindarries and the Ghoorkas of Nepaul were subdued, thus securing British India against disturbing elements.

Wars with the Burmese and the Ashantees.

During the administration of Lord Amherst as Governor-General of British India, which began in 1823 and lasted five years, the English East India Company became involved in a war with the Burmese in 1824, which ended in 1826 in giving the British additional territories. In 1828 Lord William Cavendish Bentinck became Governor-General of British India, and in 1836 began the administration of Lord Auckland. In Upper Guinea, in Western Africa, the British colonies were severely harassed in 1824 by the Ashantees, who defeated and murdered the British governor, Sir Charles McCarthy; but the Ashantees were forced to accept peace in 1827.

Canning's Foreign Policy.

Lord Castlereagh, who had been created Marquis of Londonderry and who had been Secretary of Foreign Affairs in Lord Liverpool's Ministry, committed suicide in 1822 and was succeeded in office by the talented George Canning, under whose able leadership the earlier progressive policy of the second William Pitt returned. In foreign affairs Canning's first act was to break with the Holy Alliance. He asserted the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of other nations; and in accordance with this principle he sent troops in 1826 to defend Portugal against Spanish intervention, and also recognized the independence of Spain's revolted colonies in Mexico, Central and South America, opposing the efforts of the Holy Alliance under Russia's leadership to reëstablish Spain's lost dominion in the New World, and inducing President James Monroe, of the United States, to issue his celebrated *Monroe Doctrine* against any such efforts as that of Russia and the Holy Alliance.

His Influence in Home Affairs.

In home affairs Canning's influence was seen in the new strength acquired by Catholic Emancipation and in the passage of a bill by the House of Commons in 1825 for the relief of Roman Catholics. With the entry of his friend, Mr. Huskisson, into office, in 1823, commenced a commercial policy founded on a conviction of the benefits of free trade, which afterward resulted in the repeal of the Corn Laws. The new drift of public policy divided the Ministry, and this division showed itself openly at Lord Liverpool's death in 1827.

Canning as Prime Minister.

Canning became Lord Liverpool's successor as Prime Minister; but the Duke of Wellington refused to serve under him, as did also the Chancellor, Lord Eldon, and the Home Secretary, Robert Peel. Canning's last official act was his intervention in Turkish affairs in behalf of the struggling Greeks by the conclusion of a treaty of alliance with France and Russia, at London, July 6, 1827. Canning's Ministry was broken up by his death four months after its formation. A new Ministry under Lord Goderich was formed on Canning's principles, but was at once weakened by its position on foreign affairs; and the blow inflicted upon Turkey by the allied British, French and Russian naval victory at Navarino, October 20, 1827, was not popular with the English people and was fatal to Lord Goderich's Ministry, which was forced to resign in 1828.

Intervention in Greece.

Ministry of Lord Goderich.

Ministry of the Duke of Wellington.

A purely Tory Ministry under the great Duke of Wellington then came into power, with Robert Peel for its chief support in the House of Commons, and was generally viewed as a promise of utter resistance to all further progress or reform; but several great measures of reform made it memorable. In 1828 Parliament repealed the Test and Corporation Acts, passed during the reign of Charles II. and which required the receiving of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper according

to the rites of the Church of England as a necessary qualification for office. This triumph, which was achieved after a brief Parliamentary struggle, greatly raised the hopes of the Roman Catholics for the repeal of the laws which excluded them from Parliament. A motion made in their favor by Sir Francis Burdett was carried in the House of Commons by a majority of six, but a similar motion was defeated in the House of Lords.

Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.

The agitation of the question of Catholic Emancipation continued during the remainder of the year 1828. *Brunswick Clubs* were formed by the advocates of Protestant ascendency to resist all further concession, while the Catholic leaders and their friends strenuously exerted themselves to render the cause of Catholic Emancipation popular. The agitation in Ireland, kept up by the *Catholic Association* formed by Daniel O'Connell, threatened that country with civil war; as the most intemperate harangues were made at the meetings of the Brunswick Clubs and the Catholic Association.

Catholic Emancipation Agitation.

The sudden display of strength by the Irish Catholics, who elected Daniel O'Connell to represent County Clare in Parliament, brought the agitation to a point where the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington had to choose between concession and civil war; as O'Connell was sustained by the whole Catholic population of Ireland, and as he demanded the removal of all Catholic disabilities, threatening civil war as the alternative. The danger was very great, and both parties were surprised to hear Catholic Emancipation recommended in the speech from the throne at the opening of the Parliamentary session of 1829. The Duke of Wellington introduced a bill which he said was the only means to avert civil war, and which admitted Roman Catholics to Parliament and to all civil and military offices under the crown, except those of regent, Lord Chancellor in England and Ireland, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and some others. This *Catholic Emancipation Act* passed both Houses of Parliament, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent, April 13, 1829.

The Clare Election and Daniel O'Connell

Catholic Emancipation Act.

King George IV. died at Windsor Castle, June 26, 1830. As his only child, the Princess Charlotte, was dead, he was succeeded on the thrones of Great Britain and Hanover by his brother William Henry, Duke of Clarence, who thus became WILLIAM IV. The new king had passed his entire life in the navy and was wholly without political experience. He ascended the British throne at a time of great trouble. The popular discontent in England was very great and manifested itself in the burning of farmricks and in the breaking of machinery. There was a demand from all parts of the kingdom for Parliamentary Reform. The French Revolution of 1830 gave great encouragement to the friends of Reform in England. King William IV. was per-

Death of George IV.

William IV., A. D. 1830–1837.

Question of Reform.

sonally in favor of the Reform movement; but the Ministry of the Duke of Wellington refused all concession, and was consequently compelled to resign; whereupon a Whig Ministry—the first in twenty years—came into office under Earl Grey, pledged to the long-standing demand for Parliamentary Reform.

Rotten Boroughs.

The necessity for Reform was very great. New towns, some of them, like Manchester and Birmingham, among the wealthiest and most prosperous in the kingdom and which had sprung up in the course of a century, were wholly unrepresented in Parliament; while the old and rotten boroughs, some of which had but a few inhabitants, elected members of the House of Commons. Such boroughs, as we have already observed, were usually owned by some large landowner, who controlled the elections to suit himself and openly sold his influence. Most of the small towns were controlled by a clique, which could be bought and sold. As we have already seen, the Pitts had made unsuccessful efforts to reform these evils, the aristocratic opposition being too powerful for them to overcome. The cheap publications of William Cobbett in 1816, which advocated a total reform of this system of abuses, revived the cry for Parliamentary Reform, the demand for which had increased steadily until it had now become too powerful to be resisted.

First Reform Bill.

On March 1, 1831, Lord John Russell, of Earl Grey's Cabinet, introduced a Reform Bill in the House of Commons which deprived fifty-six "pocket boroughs" of representation and assigned the one hundred and forty-three members which they returned to counties or large towns which hitherto had been unrepresented in Parliament, established a ten-pound household qualification for voters in boroughs and extended the county franchise to leaseholders, copyholders and tenant occupants of premises of certain values. The defeat of this bill in the House of Commons caused a dissolution of Parliament by the Ministry and the election of a House of Commons overwhelmingly in favor of the Reform Bill. This new House of Commons passed the Reform Bill, but the House of Lords rejected it; whereupon great excitement followed throughout England, while great riots and incendiary fires occurred at London, Bristol, Derby and Nottingham in the fall of 1831. The English people formed *unions* to refuse payment of taxes until their just demands were conceded. The Reform Bill again passed the House of Commons; whereupon the Lords who had opposed it, warned by the excited condition of the kingdom, withdrew and allowed the measure to pass; and the *First Reform Bill* finally received the royal assent June 7, 1832, thus becoming a law. By this important though bloodless revolution—this triumph of the cause of popular freedom—the right of suffrage was extended to half a million British subjects, and the Eng-

lish middle class was invested with the supreme political power in the British Empire.

Abolition of Slavery in the British Colonies.

The Reform Parliament—the object of so many hopes and fears—assembled January 29, 1833, and passed an act abolishing slavery in the British colonies, allowing the masters a compensation of twenty million pounds sterling for the eight hundred thousand slaves thus emancipated in the British West Indies, August, 1833; thus effecting a result for which the great philanthropists, William Wilberforce and Thomas Clarkson, had labored for a lifetime, Wilberforce dying a few months afterward, near the close of 1833. The Reform Parliament also passed an act in 1833 abolishing the commercial monopoly of the English East India Company and throwing open the trade of British India to all British merchants. The Reform Parliament also passed a New Poor Law in 1834, to check the growing evils of pauperism.

Daniel O'Connell.

But the violence of the Reform Parliament—especially that of the great Irish orator and agitator, Daniel O'Connell, who demanded a repeal of the Parliamentary Union of Ireland with Great Britain—did much to justify the fears of its enemies and to create a reaction throughout the kingdom against it. Even King William IV., who had hitherto been a Whig, like his brother and predecessor, George IV., went over to the Tories. On the resignation of Earl Grey, in 1834, the Whig Ministry was reorganized under Lord Melbourne. This Ministry was soon dismissed by the king and was succeeded by a Tory Ministry under Sir Robert Peel, November, 1834; but another general election returned a Whig majority in the House of Commons and thus restored Lord Melbourne's Ministry to power, April, 1835.

Lord Melbourne and Sir Robert Peel.

Important Parliamentary Acts.

In 1835 Parliament passed the Municipal Corporations Act, restoring to inhabitants of towns the rights of self-government, of which they had been deprived since the fourteenth century. In 1836 Parliament passed the General Registration Act, the Tithe Commutation Act to remedy the constant quarrels over tithes, and the Civil Marriage Act to remove one of the principal grievances of Dissenters. A system of national education commenced in 1834 by a small annual grant for the establishment of schools was developed in 1839 by the creation of a Committee of the Privy Council for educational purposes and by the steady increase of educational grants.

Railways in Great Britain.

The opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1830 by its projector, George Stephenson, was the beginning of the great railway system of Great Britain, which was soon adopted in every part of the kingdom and which gave a mighty impulse to trade. Thenceforth the number and extent of the railways of Great Britain increased year by year, so that in the course of several decades the United Kingdom was covered by a network of railways.

Death of William IV.

King William IV., the "Sailor King," died at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837, after a short reign of seven years; and, as his two children, his daughters by his wife, the Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, had both died in infancy, he was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by his niece, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, the only child of his brother Edward, Duke of Kent, and who thus became Queen VICTORIA. As females were excluded from the throne of Hanover by the Salic Law, Victoria's uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III., ascended the throne of that German kingdom; and the crowns of Great Britain and Hanover, which had been worn by the same individual from 1714 to 1837, have ever since remained separated. The reign of William IV. was the only one in English history that was not disturbed by a foreign war or by an insurrection in the English dominions and during which there was no execution for treason.

Queen Victoria, A. D. 1837–1901.

Great Britain and Hanover.

Queen Victoria's First Address to Parliament.

The opening paragraph of Queen Victoria's address to Parliament at her accession was as follows:

"The severe and afflicting loss which the nation has sustained by the death of His Majesty, my beloved uncle, has devolved upon me the duty of administering the government of this Empire. This awful responsibility is imposed upon me so suddenly and at so early a period of my life that I should feel myself utterly oppressed by the burden were I not sustained by the hope that Divine Providence, which has called me to this work, will give me strength for the performance of it, and that I shall find in the purity of my intentions and in my zeal for the public welfare that support and those resources which usually belong to a more mature age and to long experience. I place my firm reliance upon the wisdom of Parliament and upon the loyalty and affection of my people."

Incident at Her Accession.

It was said that when Victoria was proclaimed Queen, amid the blare of the herald's trumpets and the acclamations of the populace around St. James' Palace, the girl Queen's fortitude for the moment forsook her. In allusion to this circumstance Elizabeth Barrett Browning wrote her pretty lines about the child Queen who "wept to wear a crown":

"She saw no purple shrine,
For tears had dimmed her eyes;
She only knew her childhood's flowers
Were happier pageantries.
And while the heralds played their part,
For million shouts to drown—
'God save the Queen' from hill to mart,
She heard, through all, her beating heart;
And turned and wept;
She wept to wear a crown.

"God save thee, weeping Queen,
Thou shalt be well beloved!
The tyrant's scepter cannot move
As those pure tears have moved.
The nature in thine eyes we see
Which tyrants cannot own,
The love that guardeth liberties;
Great blessing on the nation lies
Whose sovereign wept,
Yes, wept to wear a crown."

Her Marriage with Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

Queen Victoria, born in 1819, was only eighteen years of age when she ascended the British throne, in 1837, but was popular with all classes of her subjects because of her admirable qualities. On February 10, 1840, she married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, one of the small Saxon principalities of Germany. Prince Albert was a man of many virtues and of ability and good common sense, qualities which endeared him to the English people and enabled him to retain their affection and confidence until his death, in 1861.

O'Connell's Agitation.

The Whig Ministry of Lord Melbourne continued to lose popular favor after Queen Victoria's accession, and its difficulties increased each year. O'Connell maintained an incessant agitation in Ireland for the Repeal of the Union, and that country could be held down only by Coercion Acts. In spite of the impulse given to trade by the introduction of railway communication, England was still suffering from distress. The discontent of the poorer classes gave rise to riotous outbreaks of the Chartists in 1839. The Chartists, who broke out into open riot at Newport, in Monmouthshire, embodied their demands in a *People's Charter*, as follows: Universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual Parliaments, equal electoral districts, the abolition of property qualification for members of Parliament, and compensation for members.

The Chartists.

Rebellion in Canada.

In Canada a quarrel between the Governor and House of Assembly of Lower Canada ended in a revolt headed by Louis Joseph Papineau in Lower Canada and William Lyon Mackenzie in Upper Canada, in 1837–'38, the object of the insurgents being the achievement of Canadian independence; but after a few slight skirmishes between the government troops and the insurgents the rebellion was quelled. In 1841 the two Canadas were united into one province by act of Parliament.

Lord Palmerston's Foreign Policy.

The vigorous but meddlesome foreign policy of Lord Palmerston, a disciple of Canning, in supporting Donna Maria da Gloria as sovereign of Portugal against Dom Miguel and Isabella as Queen of Spain against Don Carlos, by a Quadruple Alliance with France, Spain and Portugal, created general public dissatisfaction in England, which was heightened by the Quadruple Alliance with Russia, Prussia and Austria

British Naval Activity on the Syrian Coast.

in support of Sultan Mahmoud II. of Turkey against his rebellious vassal, Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, who began a second revolt against his suzerain in 1839 and again invaded Syria and advanced in a rapid course of victories toward Constantinople. The bombardment of Beyreut and Acre by the British navy in 1840 forced Mehemet Ali to leave Syria in the Sultan's possession, in 1841.

British Indian Invasion of Afghanistan.

The English people were also dissatisfied with the Ministry's foreign policy regarding Afghanistan. Under the erroneous impression that Russia contemplated some act of hostility toward British India through the instrumentality of Persia, an Anglo-Indian army under Sir John Keane was marched into Afghanistan in 1839. The British occupied Candahar, stormed and took Ghiznee, occupied Cabul, deposed Dost Mohammed, the reigning sovereign, and put Shah Soojah in his place.

Great Britain's Opium War with China.

The discontent with the Ministry was further aggravated by a war with China which broke out in 1839, in consequence of the destruction of large quantities of opium smuggled into China by British merchants, and the refusal of the Chinese authorities to compensate the British merchants for the opium thus destroyed. A British squadron under Admiral Elliott captured the island of Chusan, July 5, 1840, and under Captain Elliott it took some of the Bogue forts by storm January 7, 1841. The remaining Bogue forts were taken by storm February 26, 1841. The capture of Canton by the British under Captain Elliott and Sir Hugh Gough, in May, 1841, was followed by a suspension of hostilities, when the Chinese ransomed the city by the payment of six million dollars.

Sir Robert Peel's Tory Ministry.

The wars in Syria, China and Afghanistan made Lord Melbourne's Whig Ministry unpopular, and a dissolution of Parliament and an appeal to the British people resulted in returning the Tories to power, Sir Robert Peel becoming the head of the new Tory Ministry. In the new Parliament the Tories, who now took the name of *Conservatives*, had a majority of almost a hundred members.

British Retreat from Afghanistan.

A great disaster befell the British arms in Afghanistan. On November 2, 1841, a fierce rebellion broke out at Cabul, headed by Akbar Khan, son of the deposed Dost Mohammed. The British ambassadors, Burns and MacNaghton, were murdered, as were many of the British military officers; while Shah Soojah was dethroned and Dost Mohammed raised to the Afghan throne. Finding themselves in the midst of a hostile people, the British made a disastrous retreat. The British troops and camp followers—numbering twenty-six thousand persons—were nearly all killed or made captives.

British Victories in Afghanistan.

In 1842 Lord Auckland was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Lord Ellenborough, under whom the British arms retrieved their honor. An Anglo-Indian army under General Pollock

was sent into Afghanistan; and this force, with the aid of the British force under General Nott from Candahar, captured Cabul and rescued the British officers and ladies who had been held as prisoners at Bameean. After destroying the fortifications of Cabul, the British evacuated Afghanistan.

Treaty of Nankin with China.

Sir Henry Pottinger, who superseded Captain Elliott, renewed hostilities in China, and captured Amoy, Shanghai and Ningpo in the fall of 1841, defeated the Chinese in the battle of Tsekee in March, 1842, and captured Chapo in May, 1842, and Chin-kiang-foo, July 2, 1842. The British fleet then proceeded against Nankin, where a treaty of peace was signed August 29, 1842. By the Treaty of Nankin, China opened five of her ports—Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Shanghai and Foo Choo-foo—to the commerce of Christendom, paid a war-idemnity of twenty-one million dollars and ceded the island of Hong Kong to Great Britain. This "Opium War" is chiefly important because it opened China to commercial intercourse with the rest of the world. The Treaty of Nankin between Great Britain and China was followed by commercial treaties between France and China, and between the United States and China. Thus a new era was opened in the history of the oldest nation of the world, which now for the first time broke down the barriers of its exclusiveness.

O'Connell's Agitation and Arrest.

Sir Robert Peel, the new Prime Minister, at once set to work vigorously to remedy the evils from which Great Britain was suffering. Order was restored to the finances by the repeal of a number of oppressive and unnecessary taxes and by the imposition of an income tax. Ireland was still on the brink of rebellion in consequence of O'Connell's agitation for the repeal of the Union. In 1843 Sir Robert Peel's Ministry caused O'Connell to be arrested, tried, convicted and imprisoned on a charge of sedition. He was released upon an appeal to the House of Lords; but his conviction destroyed his influence with his countrymen, and his prestige thenceforth rapidly declined.

British-Indian Conquest of Scinde and Gwalior.

The treacherous conduct of the Ameers of Scinde toward the British troops in their retreat from Afghanistan, and their subsequent effort to break off their engagements with the British Indian government, brought an Anglo-Indian army under Sir Charles Napier into their territory in 1843. A defeat of the Ameers near Hydrabad was followed by the annexation of Scinde to the British Indian Empire. The Mahrattas, who displayed a treachery similar to that of the Ameers of Scinde, were defeated in the battles of Maharajpoor and Punniar, near Gwalior; and their territory was also annexed to the British Indian Empire.

In 1844 Lord Ellenborough was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by Sir Henry Hardinge, who had lost an arm in the battle

First War with the Sikhs in India.

of Waterloo. In 1845 the Sikhs of the Punjab crossed the Sutledge and invaded the British Indian territories, but were defeated by the British under Lord Gough at Moodkee, December 14, 1845. The Sikhs were also defeated in the bloody battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobraon, early in 1846; and by a treaty on February 10, 1846, the Sikhs paid indemnities to the British Indian government.

Corn Law Agitation.

The Tory, or Conservative Ministry of Sir Robert Peel was called upon to face the most difficult and dangerous questions of home politics since the Reform agitation. The prohibitory duties imposed upon foreign grain by Parliament in 1815 in the selfish interest of the English landowners still continued and were sustained by a considerable party, which declared that English agriculture ought to be protected and that the English people ought to be forced to depend upon their own country for breadstuffs by maintaining those high duties upon the importation of foreign grain. But there was another and larger party who maintained that the Corn Laws simply imposed a tax upon the consumer for the benefit of the producer, and this party advocated absolute free trade with all the world.

Repeal of the Corn Laws.

Richard Cobden and other English statesmen organized the *Anti-Corn-Law League* in 1839 for the dissemination of free trade views by means of speeches and publications. This association gradually educated English public sentiment in favor of free trade. Sir Robert Peel had entered office pledged to continue the protective system, but he now became convinced of its inexpediency. In 1846 the emergency caused by the failure of the potato crop in Ireland and the harvest in England forced Sir Robert Peel to introduce a bill into Parliament for the repeal of the Corn Laws. The bill passed both Houses of Parliament, and became a law upon receiving the royal assent, thus opening Great Britain to the importation of foreign grain and other articles of food free of duty.

Lord John Russell's Whig Ministry.

Sir Robert Peel was driven from office by the resentment of his own party because of the repeal of the Corn Laws, and was succeeded by a Whig Ministry under Lord John Russell, which remained in office until 1852. The new Ministry devoted itself to the carrying-out of the free-trade policy in every department of British commerce; and since then the maxim of the Anti-Corn-Law League, to "buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest," has been accepted as the law of British commercial policy. The credit for the triumph of free trade in Great Britain is mainly due to Richard Cobden, one of the ablest political economists that England has ever produced.

Irish Famine of 1847.

Another failure of the potato crop in Ireland in 1847 caused a terrible famine in that unhappy country. Although the nobility, gentry and wealthy middle class of England, and benevolent individuals in the

United States, contributed liberally to the relief of the starving poor of Ireland, thousands perished from famine and its attendant diseases.

Great Chartist Demonstration in 1848.

The Revolutions of 1848 which convulsed the Continent of Europe encouraged the Chartists to make a demonstration in favor of Reform in London, April 10, 1848, for the purpose of presenting a monster petition to Parliament; but the government took the alarm, and twenty thousand workingmen who marched in procession from Kensington Common were prevented from recrossing the bridges by a quarter of a million Londoners who had enrolled themselves as special constables to prevent the dreadful "Red Republican" demonstration, and the affair passed off quietly. Since that time Parliament has abolished the property qualification for members of the House of Commons, made the suffrage in Great Britain almost universal and established the vote by ballot—three of the chief reforms demanded by the Chartists. A feeble effort at rebellion in Ireland in 1848 was quelled by a few policemen; and its leaders—William Smith O'Brien, Thomas Francis Meagher and John Mitchel, editor of *The United Irishman*—were banished.

Irish Rebellion of 1848.

Second War with the Sikhs in India.

In 1848 Sir Henry Hardinge was succeeded as Governor-General of British India by the Earl of Dalhousie. In the same year a second war with the Sikhs of the Punjab broke out in consequence of the annexation of the Punjab to British India, the young Sikh king being pensioned from his hereditary revenues. The Sikhs were decisively defeated by the British under Lord Gough in the battles of Chenah and Chillianwallah, in January, 1849, and Goojerat, February 21, 1849; whereupon the Sikhs submitted. The famous diamond known as the *Koh-e-noor*, or "Mountain of Light," which for centuries had been supposed to exert a mysterious power in preserving the dominion of its possessor, was taken from the Sikhs and added to Queen Victoria's crown-jewels.

Conciliation of the Sikhs and Pacification of the Punjab.

Sir Henry Lawrence undertook the difficult task of reconciling the Sikhs to British rule; and his kindness and justice restored order and prosperity in five years to the Punjab, which had suffered for ages from war and bloodshed. Even the acquiescence of the warlike chiefs was gained, and their sons flocked eagerly to the English colleges to prepare themselves for honorable positions in the British civil or military service. The great mass of Hindoos and Mohammedans of the Punjab who had been under the dominion of the Sikhs readily submitted to the British rule, which gave them greater security of life and property than they had ever before enjoyed. The work of pacification was accomplished so effectually that the Sikhs were thenceforth loyal subjects of Queen Victoria, and but for their steadfast loyalty to British authority during the great Sepoy mutiny of 1857 the British dominion in India would have been overthrown.

Great Britain's Dominion in Australia.

Besides her empire in India, Great Britain has been building up another great dominion in the East. As we have seen, she took formal possession of the great island of Australia in 1788 by establishing a penal colony at Botany Bay, in the south-eastern part of the island. The shores of this large island, or continent, were explored by the Dutch in the early part of the seventeenth century; but its interior was unknown to Europeans until Captain Cook's visit to its south-eastern coast had suggested the possibility of finding room and sustenance upon its vast untilled domain for the surplus, and particularly the criminal, population of Great Britain.

First British Penal Colony in Australia.

The British fleet of eleven ships which brought a thousand persons, chiefly convicts, in January, 1788, arrived at Sydney Cove, in what has been called the finest harbor in the world. Having lost a store-ship during the voyage, this colony suffered great hardships at first and succeeded in barely establishing itself. As the convict settlers had forfeited all civil rights by their crimes, their labor belonged to the British government; but they proved to be useful pioneers, as they cleared the wilderness, made roads, built bridges and constructed many other public works. They were joined by others from time to time, and the work was carried on vigorously and successfully, thus greatly lightening the tasks of the free settlers.

Reform of the Penal Colonists.

Some of the earlier governors of the English colony in Australia lacked wisdom and benevolence; but under the wise and humane administration of Governor Macquarie, from 1810 to 1821, the convicts embraced the opportunity held out to them to reform; and many who had been driven into crime in the over-crowded cities of England by the cruel pressure of poverty amended their lives and became useful citizens, some of them being chosen to offices of trust in the colony.

Free Colonization of Australia.

The thirty years following Governor Macquarie's administration were followed by a large emigration of free settlers from England to Australia, and many new towns were founded. The practice of transporting convicts to Australia and Van Diemen's Land was discontinued, but thousands of the honest poor of Great Britain were aided by the British government to emigrate, and so many persons of character and wealth were induced to colonize in that vast and remote island by the increased facilities for travel and hope of gain that the population increased more than tenfold. Wool became the great staple of the colony and was exported in large quantities. Australian wool has been found equal to the finest fleeces of Spain or Germany, and the flocks of sheep in the vast island then already numbered many millions. The original colony of *New South Wales* was divided; the northern part being called *Queensland* and the southern part being

Australian Wool.

Australian Colonies.

named *Victoria*, the middle part keeping the old name. The colonies of *South Australia* and *West Australia* were afterward organized.

Gold Discovery in Australia.

The discovery of gold in the south-eastern provinces of Australia in May, 1851, still further increased the population of the island. This discovery at first threatened the ruin of the colony; as flocks, herds and farms were abandoned for the search of the precious metal. Ships in port were deserted by their crews, who were also smitten with the gold fever. All regular industries ceased for the time, and food reached famine prices; but the consequent peril and distress at last brought the colonists to their senses, and they resumed their ordinary pursuits. Society was reorganized, and security returned. The colony took a new start, and has ever since grown with a wonderful rapidity. The multitude of new immigrants who constantly came from England added to the commercial prosperity of the country.

Cities of Melbourne and Sydney.

Melbourne, the capital of Victoria and the largest city of Australia, founded in 1837, is a handsome and flourishing city of about three hundred thousand inhabitants and is the seat of a university. Sydney, the old capital of New South Wales, though older than Melbourne, is smaller, but is also a flourishing city and the seat of a university, and has a metropolitan bishopric. The population of Australia is rapidly increasing; and railroads, telegraphs and other institutions of the West are constantly adding to the wealth and prosperity of that remote land, which seems destined eventually to become the seat of a great Anglo-Saxon nation. Australia and Tasmania—the latter formerly called Van Diemen's Land—are now connected with London by a submarine telegraph cable.

Australia's Development.

Her Free Institutions.

Each of the Australian provinces has a governor, a Ministry and a Parliament of its own; and the free institutions of the Mother Country are firmly planted in that distant and flourishing dominion of Great Britain in the Eastern world, as such institutions are in every other part of the globe in which the Anglo Saxon race plants itself.

Tasmania and New Zealand.

Tasmania is also a thriving British colony. The three islands of New Zealand—which are antipodal to the British Isles and which comprise an area larger than those European islands—have become the seats of eight flourishing English colonies. Wellington is the chief town and the capital of the English colonies in those remote islands, which are unsurpassed by any country in the world for richness of soil, for healthfulness of climate and for grandeur and variety of scenery. These islands are rich in coal, copper, iron and gold.

English Colonization of New Zealand.

The New Zealand Islands were discovered by the Dutch in 1642, and the first European settlements were made there by deserters from whale-ships visiting the South Pacific. More permanent settlers were attracted by the fine timber of its forests; and since 1814 English

The Maoris. missionaries introduced Christianity and the elements of civilization among the Maoris, or native New Zealanders, after which cannibalism and all the worst features of paganism very speedily disappeared. At the present time nearly all the Maoris are nominally Christians. Most of them are able to read and write, and some are even highly educated, while newspapers are printed in the Maori language.

British Wars with the Maoris. In 1840 the Maori chiefs of the two larger of the New Zealand Islands acknowledged the suzerainty of Queen Victoria; but a four years' war, from 1843 to 1847, was caused by disputes concerning the titles to lands; and hostilities have been renewed at various times within the last quarter of a century. The English have found valiant foes in the brave Maori race, because of their native intelligence, their skill in the use of firearms and their knowledge of inaccessible mountain fastnesses; but they are fast diminishing in number, so that they will doubtless be extinct in the near future, when the population of New Zealand will be wholly English, and those islands will also be the seat of a great Anglo-Saxon community. In recent years New Zealand has become the most progressive country in the world, having made the mines, much of the land and the public utilities public property.

British Occupation of Borneo. Private enterprise led to another settlement in the Eastern seas. The coast of Borneo was explored in 1838 by James Brooke in his own yacht. This enterprising Englishman formed the project of civilizing the savage tribes of that large East India island, and also of clearing its rivers and bays of the pirates who had so long preyed upon the commerce of the East Indian seas. He assisted the Rajah of Sarawak in suppressing a rebellion of his subjects, so gaining the confidence of the Sultan of Borneo that he was intrusted with the government of the province. The natives of Borneo were surprised and conciliated by an administration wiser and more beneficent than any which they had hitherto experienced. With the assistance of a British frigate and her boats, Brooke waged a war of extermination against the pirates, thus rendering such service to East Indian commerce that the British government appointed him its regent in Borneo. The adjacent small island of Labuan was annexed to his dominion in 1847, becoming an important British naval station in those remote Eastern seas, particularly since the discovery of great deposits of coal.

Feejee Islands. The Feejee Islands came into Great Britain's possession in 1874, when the natives placed themselves under Queen Victoria's protection and sent her their great war-club, which for centuries had been used as a scepter by their chiefs.

Cape Colony. Southern Africa—which the British wrested from the Dutch during the Napoleonic wars—has also became a flourishing British possession; and Cape Town—the capital of the British colony of the Cape of

Good Hope—has become the way-station of vessels sailing between Europe and the Far East.

Deaths of Peel and Wellington.

In the first few years of the last half of the nineteenth century England lost her greatest statesman of the time and her greatest warrior—Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington. Sir Robert Peel, to whom Great Britain was indebted for many improvements in her commercial and economic policy, was thrown from his horse in St. James' Park, and was so fatally injured that he died in a few hours, July 2, 1850. Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, died suddenly at Walner Castle, December 14, 1852, on the anniversary of General Washington's death. England sincerely mourned the death of the "Iron Duke," who had fought so many battles and had never been defeated. He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral with the most impressive obsequies; and all classes vied in paying honors to the victor of Vimiera, Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, Quatre-Bras and Waterloo.

First World's Fair in London.

In 1851 the first International Exhibition, or World's Fair, was held in the *Crystal Palace*, an immense building of iron and glass erected for the occasion, in London. People and exhibits from all parts of the globe were seen in this "Great Exhibition," and the rude implements of the savage and the greatest works of the fine and useful arts were alike displayed in profusion. The electric telegraph between England and France was now completed. This new and important invention was now in general use in Great Britain and in Continental Europe, as well as in the United States of America.

Tory Ministry of the Earl of Derby.

After repeated defeats, Lord John Russell's Whig Ministry was succeeded by a Tory, or Conservative Cabinet under the Earl of Derby; but the financial measures of the new Administration gave great dissatisfaction; and, after a short tenure of less than a year, a hostile vote in the House of Commons led to the resignation of Lord Derby's Ministry, at the beginning of 1853; whereupon a Coalition Ministry, composed of Whigs, Radicals and free-trade followers of Sir Robert Peel, with the Earl of Aberdeen as Premier, came into power. As many of the new Ministers were men of recognized ability, great expectations were formed concerning them. In this Coalition Ministry the Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone held the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer and was therefore the leader of the administration in the House of Commons.

Coalition Ministry of Lord Aberdeen.

British Wars with the Burmese and the Kaffirs.

In the meantime the British had been engaged in wars in Asia and Africa. A second war between the English East India Company and the Burmese, in 1852, added new territories to the British dominion in India. In South Africa the British had been engaged in hostilities with the wild Kaffirs since 1847, but in 1853 the Kaffirs were subdued and brought to terms.

SECTION VII.—TURKO-EGYPTIAN WARS AND THE EASTERN QUESTION (A. D. 1831–1839).

Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt.

Mehemet Ali, who, as we have seen, became Pasha of Egypt in 1805, and who had fully established his power by his treacherous massacre of the Maneluke chiefs in 1811, did much for the advancement and prosperity of Egypt. In 1818 his armies commanded by his sons subdued the Wahabees, the new Mohammedan sect of Arabia, and reduced that desert land under his sway. In 1819 and 1820 he conquered Nubia, Senaar, Kordofan and Dongola. He organized a powerful army and an efficient navy on the European model, and officered each with European adventurers, mainly Frenchmen. He caused harbors and docks to be constructed, introduced the manufacture of arms, clothing and other articles into Egypt and carefully fostered these industries. He gave Egypt once more a firm and despotic government, and that country enjoyed a degree of prosperity and internal tranquillity which it had not experienced for many centuries. In 1825, as we have seen, Mehemet Ali sent his son Ibrahim Pasha with an army and fleet to aid his master, the Sultan of Turkey, in suppressing the Greek Revolution; but his fleet was almost destroyed by the allied British, French and Russian fleet at Navarino, October 20, 1827.

His Ambitious Design.

Mehemet Ali's design was to convert Egypt into an independent hereditary kingdom under his own sway. Immediately after the close of the Greek War for Independence he restored his fleet on a more formidable scale and increased his army. The Ottoman Empire had been seriously weakened by the losses which it had sustained since the beginning of the nineteenth century, and the time appeared auspicious for the execution of his project.

His First Rebellion against the Sultan of Turkey.

As a reward for his services to his suzerain, Sultan Mahmoud II., Mehemet Ali had been given the pashalic of the island of Crete; but his ambition was not thus satisfied. He therefore demanded Syria, but was refused that province by the Sultan. Mehemet Ali accordingly resolved to conquer Syria, and a quarrel with the Pasha of Acre afforded him a pretext for invading that province. He sent an army of forty thousand men under his son, Ibrahim Pasha, an experienced and able general, into Syria. The Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha, assisted by the Egyptian fleet, besieged Acre, which surrendered May 27, 1832; after which the Egyptian forces quickly overran Syria and Palestine.

Egyptian Victories in Syria and Asia Minor.

Ibrahim Pasha advanced in a rapid course of victories toward Constantinople, successively defeating the Turkish armies sent against him at Ems, in Upper Syria, July 6, 1832; at Beylan, in Cilicia, near the

ancient battlefield of Issus, July 29, 1832; and at Koneih, in the province of Anatolia, in Asia Minor, October 29, 1832. This last victory made Ibrahim Pasha master of almost the whole of Asia Minor; and he was preparing to advance on the Turkish capital, which was only saved from capture by the timely intervention of the Czar Nicholas of Russia in the Sultan's behalf.

Intervention of Great Britain, France and Russia.

Great Britain, France and Russia compelled Mehemet Ali to accept a peace which left him in possession of the pashalics of Egypt and Crete and annexed to them the pashalics of Jerusalem, Tripoli, Aleppo, Damascus and Adana, but which left him a vassal of the Sultan of Turkey. This treaty, which was signed July 8, 1833, was a great victory for the Pasha of Egypt and a great humiliation for Sultan Mahmoud II., being virtually a surrender of all the countries which the Turks had acquired by the conquests of Sultan Selim I. in 1517.

Mehemet Ali's Fresh Defiance of the Sultan.

Mehemet Ali steadily pursued his design of converting his dominions into an independent hereditary monarchy, thus arousing the anger of Sultan Mahmoud II. Mehemet Ali refused to pay the customary tribute to the Sultan, and had the boldness to remove the Turkish guards from Mohammed's tomb at Medina and to appoint his own Arab soldiers in their stead—an act which was an open repudiation of the Sultan's authority as the Khalif of Islam. This bold proceeding brought matters to a crisis; and, after some efforts at negotiation, Sultan Mahmoud II. sent a peremptory order to the Pasha of Egypt to restore the Turkish guards to the Prophet's tomb, to promptly pay his annual tribute and to acknowledge himself the Sultan's vassal. Mehemet Ali bluntly rejected the Sultan's demands, whereupon the Sultan declared war against his rebellious vassal, A. D. 1839.

Battle of Nisibis.

A large and well-equipped Turkish army under Hafiz Pasha crossed the Euphrates and fought a battle with the Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha at Nisibis, on the Euphrates, June 25, 1839. Entire regiments in the Turkish army deserted to the Egyptians; and those which remained loyal to the Sultan's standard were routed with the loss of all their artillery, baggage and stores. An Ottoman fleet which left Constantinople, July 6, 1839, to attack Alexandria reached the latter city a week later, and was at once surrendered to the Egyptians by its treacherous commander.

Loss of the Turkish Fleet.

Intervention of Great Britain, France, Austria and Prussia.

The Ottoman Empire was again at the mercy of the victorious Pasha of Egypt; and Constantinople would have been taken had not Great Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia come to the rescue of the young Sultan Abdul Medjid, the son and successor of Mahmoud II., who had died a few days after the defeat of his army at Nisibis, June, 1839. France was anxious to place Mehemet Ali on the Turkish throne; but the other four Great Powers, by the Quadruple Treaty of London in

the summer of 1840, sustained the claims of the young Abdul Medjid. The British, Austrian and Turkish fleets bombarded Beyreut and Acre, thus expelling the Egyptian garrisons from those Syrian forts and aiding the Ottoman forces to recover Syria for the young Sultan. Mehemet Ali was forced to restore the Ottoman fleet and to withdraw his armies from Crete and Asia Minor.

Mehemet Ali Coerced by the Allies.

By a treaty signed February 13, 1841, Egypt was left in possession of Mehemet Ali and his successors in the direct line, but all his conquests in his first war with Sultan Mahmoud II. were restored to the Sultan. The Pasha of Egypt was to pay a specified annual tribute to the Sultan of Turkey and to render him military and naval aid when summoned to do so. Mehemet Ali continued to rule Egypt until 1848,

His Successors.

when his mind gave way and he was succeeded by his son Ibrahim Pasha, who died two months afterward, November 9, 1848, and was succeeded by his nephew Abbas Pasha.

Russia's Wars with the Circassians under Schamyl.

For more than thirty years, from 1827 to 1859, the Russians were engaged in a struggle with the warlike Circassians of the Caucasus region, who were led by their hero-prophet Schamyl. The most famous events of this struggle were the Russian storming and capture of Himri, October 8, 1832, and the taking of Akulgo by storm by the Russians in 1843, on which occasion they lost twelve thousand men killed and wounded. In 1845 Prince Woronzoff was put in command of the Russian armies in Circassia. Prince Woronzoff was defeated by Schamyl near Tiflis in 1853, while another Russian army was also defeated by a Circassian force. The Russians finally effected the conquest of Circassia by the capture of Schamyl in 1859.

SECTION VIII.—AGITATION IN FRANCE, GERMANY AND ITALY (A. D. 1830–1848).

Louis Philippe, A. D. 1830–1848.

Louis Philippe's government, erected upon the unstable foundation of the sovereignty of the French people, was exposed to many attacks, both from the Legitimists, or partisans of the elder branch of the Bourbons, and from the republicans. Only the bourgeoisie, or prosperous middle class, who, being intent upon gain and the peaceable enjoyment of their earnings, could find their safety and object in a constitutional monarchy, were satisfied with the "Citizen King"; and Louis Philippe depended upon that class for support. But, as he

His Difficulties.

neglected to give the less wealthy class of citizens any share of political power by extending the suffrage, he did not have many adherents. He did not know how to win the hearts of the French people by greatness of mind and noble actions. As he possessed immense wealth, he made

use of his exalted station to constantly increase his property, and thus incurred the reproach of selfishness, avarice and cupidity—a reproach which also attached in a greater or less degree to his Councilors, Ministers and other officials, who were accused of covetousness and venality; thus infecting his entire government with the stain of corruption.

Bourgeoisie and Lower Classes.

The bourgeoisie, or middle class, had appealed loudly to the lower ranks of the French people to support the Charter against the tyrannical ordinances of Charles X., but when the Legitimist monarchy was overthrown and the aid of the lower classes was no longer needed they were expected to relapse into their previous condition. The bourgeoisie also hated the peerage and sought all the political power for themselves. But there were some men among them who entertained more liberal ideas, among whom were Dupont de l'Eure, Lafitte and others, who were thorough republicans. Louis Philippe himself professed the most liberal sentiments, saying publicly on one occasion: "I am but a bridge to arrive at a republic."

Louis Philippe's Untenable Throne.

But the "Citizen King's" real feelings were with M. de Broglie and M. Guizot, who opposed concession of freedom to the French people, wished to strengthen the royal prerogative and regarded the Revolution of July, 1830, as having been effected simply for the reëstablishment of the Charter. Some of the most zealous republicans, considering themselves betrayed by the election of the "Citizen King," felt disposed to unite with another class of the French people, composed mainly of unoccupied and dissatisfied young men, who denounced what they considered Louis Philippe's treachery and aimed to excite a war of opinion throughout Europe. Amid all these elements the throne of the King of the French stood for a long time tottering, supported by a weak combination of royalists and bourgeoisie, maintaining its ascendency by hollow concessions and only developing itself by artifice.

Disposal of the Ministers of Charles X.

The capture of the Ministers of the dethroned Charles X. gave the severest trial of strength to Louis Philippe's government. The "Citizen King" made no effort to arrest these delinquents, and would have gladly allowed them to leave the country; but four of them were discovered at some distance from Paris as they were seeking to escape under false passports, and were brought back to the capital by zealous patriots. The government was obliged to send them to the Chamber of Peers for trial, and that body condemned them to lifelong imprisonment. The excitement which their arrest had caused produced the most formidable riots in Paris, which it required the National Guard three days to suppress.

Republican Violence.

The Paris republicans were extremely violent in their measures, and many of them were fanatical. Frequent attempts to assassinate the

king, made by half-witted persons, who, upon being brought to trial, openly derided all constituted authority, and who were identified with the republican party by its enemies, brought discredit upon that party, thus obliging it to remain silent.

Legitimist Insurrections.

The Legitimists likewise injured their cause by an insurrection in the South of France, which was immediately suppressed by the government. But the Bourbon dynasty was too obnoxious to the masses of the French people for the Legitimist outbreaks against the "Citizen King" and the Ministry of the "*juste milieu*" to be successful. The erection of the white banner of the Bourbons on the anniversary of the assassination of the Duke of Berry excited a disturbance, a result of which was the destruction of the archiepiscopal palace, February 15, 1831. The Duchess of Berry, whose son, the Duke of Bordeaux, was the legitimate heir to the French crown, attempted to excite a Legitimist rising in La Vendée in the winter of 1831; but she was betrayed by one of her followers and cast into prison, where she gave birth to a daughter and was obliged to confess a secret marriage to an Italian nobleman. She was at once permitted to retire to Sicily amid the general ridicule of the public, thus obliging her partisans to remain quiet and thus ending the first effort to establish "Henry V." on the throne of his ancestors. The Legitimists, headed by the gray-haired poet Chateaubriand, now practically abandoned their hopes of elevating "Henry V.," Duke of Bordeaux and Count de Chambord, to the French throne and retired sullenly into the suburb of St. Germaine.

Republican Outbreaks.

The republicans also gave Louis Philippe's government much trouble. A sanguinary republican outbreak at Lyons in 1831 was suppressed with difficulty, and the government caused the prisoners taken in the insurrection to be banished or imprisoned for long terms. A republican outbreak in Paris in 1832, at the funeral of General Lamarque, lasted five hours and was suppressed only after great loss of life.

Republican Journals.

The republicans thereafter refrained from further acts of violence, but made constant efforts to increase the number of their partisans by diffusing their opinions in journals and by means of secret societies. The journal *Nationale*, under the editorship of Armand Carrel, and, after his death in a duel, of Armand Marrast, was the much-persecuted and much-punished organ of the republican party.

Socialism and Communism.

But the republicans soon divided. The moderate republicans sought only to attack Louis Philippe's government and aimed at revolutionizing the affairs of state; but others, like Proudhon, declared property to be robbery and threatened hostility to all who were in possession of anything; while others, like Louis Blanc, flattered the self-love and self-respect of the working-classes by a high estimate of their functions and importance, advocated the equality of capital and labor and de-

manded better payment and greater security to labor from the state. These men endeavored to revolutionize social relations and to put in practice the doctrines of Socialism and Communism, as advocated by Fourrier and Proudhon. Their watchwords were "Liberté, Egalité and Fraternité"; and the essence of their doctrine was hatred of the bourgeoisie. These Communistic and Socialistic ideas spread and increased. The members of the Socialistic secret societies sought the king's life, but Louis Philippe escaped eight attempts at assassination with wonderful good fortune.

Quadruple Alliance.

The French government's energy in its intervention in Belgian affairs, forcing the Dutch garrison at Antwerp to capitulate, gained it a great degree of popularity at home. Although France joined Great Britain, Spain and Portugal in a Quadruple Alliance to support the claims of the infant Queen Isabella II. of Spain, Louis Philippe secretly allowed Don Carlos to travel from London through France to Spain without informing his Prime Minister, Marshal Soult, who considered this treatment an indignity and therefore resigned office. His successor, Marshal Gerard, pursued the same policy. The frequent insurrections had filled the prisons of France; and Marshal Gerard attempted to have a general amnesty granted for all political offenses, and resigned when the king disapproved of his course, October, 1834.

Ministries of Marshals Soult and Gerard.

Ministry of Guizot and Thiers.

A new Ministry under Guizot and Thiers then came into power; but, as this Ministry did not possess the confidence of the Chambers, it was dissolved in February, 1835. The Chambers chiefly manifested their opposition to the Ministry by refusing to provide for the payment of twenty-five million francs to the United States as indemnity for French spoliations on American commerce during Napoleon's wars, although a treaty to that effect had been made in 1831. President Jackson's hostile attitude speedily brought the French Chambers to terms, and the new Ministry succeeded in carrying an act providing for the payment of the indemnity.

American Claims.

Fieschi's Infernal Machine.

On July 28, 1835, while King Louis Philippe was reviewing the troops of the line and the National Guard under arms in Paris, a terrific explosion from an infernal machine killed Marshal Mortier, General Lachasse and twelve other persons and wounded about thirty others; but the king and his three sons escaped almost miraculously. The contriver of the machine was Fieschi, a Corsican, who was siezed immediately, and was guillotined February 19, 1836. His two accomplices were also guillotined, but their execution did not deter others from similar attempts.

Restrictive Laws.

The Ministry sought to make capital out of this attempted regicide and induced the Chambers to pass three laws at their next session greatly restricting popular liberty. One of these laws was directed

against the press. Another allowed jurors to vote by ballot and provided that a mere majority should in future be necessary to convict, instead of two-thirds, as hitherto. A third law provided for the constitution of courts of assize and the treatment of contumacious prisoners. Restrictions were also placed upon personal liberty and the privilege of forming unions.

Ministries of Soult and Thiers.

At the beginning of 1836 the Minister of Finance reported a large deficit in the public revenue and suggested an increase of taxation or a reduction of the interest on the public debt from five to three per cent. As the capitalists, who supported Louis Philippe, held most of the debt, the king preferred an increase of taxation; but, as the Chambers were unwilling to impose new burdens on the French people, the second Ministry of Marshal Soult was succeeded by a new Cabinet under Louis Adolphe Thiers, February 22, 1836. Thiers boldly supported the Republic of Cracow, the Bey of Tunis and the queen-regent Maria Christina of Spain; but, as King Louis Philippe refused to intervene in Spanish affairs, on account of the reëstablishment of the Spanish Constitution of 1812, Thiers resigned in September, 1836, and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Count Molé, who strove to preserve peace with foreign powers and internal tranquillity. The ex-Ministers of Charles X. and many others who were imprisoned for political offenses were pardoned.

Count Mole's Ministry.

Prince Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte.

The Duke of Reichstadt, the imbecile son of Napoleon I. and whom the Bonaparte family recognized as Napoleon II., having died in 1832 at the age of twenty-one, Prince Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, the great Emperor Napoleon's nephew, became the heir of the Bonaparte interests. This prince was the son of Louis Bonaparte, at one time King of Holland, Napoleon's brother, and his wife, Hortense Beauharnais, the daughter of Josephine by her first husband, General Beauharnais. On October 29, 1836, this Bonaparte prince attempted to excite a revolt of the garrison of Strassbourg for the avowed purpose of overthrowing the Orleanist monarchy and reëstablishing the Bonapartist Empire; but the troops refused to join him, and he was arrested and sent by way of South America to New York.

His Effort at Strassbourg.

His Effort at Boulogne.

He returned to Europe and took up his residence in Switzerland, whence the French government attempted to expel him; but he voluntarily left that country, in order to avoid involving it in war on his account. He made a second attempt to overthrow Louis Philippe's government by landing at Boulogne, August 6, 1840. Armed and uniformed, he led his followers into the town, carrying his hat on the point of his sword, while his followers shouted: "Vive l'Empereur!" Some of the garrison were told that Louis Philippe had been dethroned by a revolution and were about to place themselves under the prince's

command, when their captain awoke and rushed out of his quarters and restored order by shouting: "Vive le Roi!" The prince fired a pistol at the captain and wounded a private soldier, but the people now sided with the garrison. The young Bonaparte and some of his followers attempted to escape by swimming to the steamboat which had brought them; but boats were put after them, and the prince and many of his party were captured and securely imprisoned in the castle of Boulogne. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was sentenced to lifelong imprisonment in the fortress of Ham, whence he succeeded in making his escape to England in May, 1846.

His Imprisonment at Ham.

The refusal of the Republic of Mexico to indemnify France for the losses sustained by French subjects during the internal troubles of that republic led to a bombardment of the city of Vera Cruz and the strong castle of San Juan de Ulloa by a French fleet under Rear-Admiral Baudin, who obtained possession of the city and castle, November 28, 1838. Mexico declared war against France; but the mediation of Mr. Pakenham, the British ambassador to Mexico, led to an amicable settlement of the difficulties.

Short War with Mexico.

When Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, threw off his allegiance to the Sultan of Turkey in 1839 and conquered Syria, France, under M. Thiers, who was again Prime Minister, demanded that Mehemet Ali should be allowed to retain Syria and Egypt; but Great Britain insisted that Mehemet Ali should restore Syria to the Sultan, and induced Austria, Prussia and Russia to enter into a Quadruple Alliance with her by a treaty at London, in 1840, without consulting France on the question. In pursuance of the Quadruple Treaty, an allied British, Austrian and Turkish fleet bombarded Beyreut and Acre and forced Mehemet Ali to evacuate Syria; but he was allowed to retain Egypt in independent hereditary possession for himself and for transmission to his posterity.

France and the Quadruple Alliance on the Eastern Question.

The French regarded the Quadruple Treaty as an act of treachery on Great Britain's part and considered their nation insulted. The French gave way to violent expressions of feeling and avowed a desire for war with Great Britain. The Ministry manifested the same warlike spirit, and King Louis Philippe consented to an increase of the French army to six hundred and thirty-nine thousand men. M. Thiers resumed the plan for the fortification of Paris, which before had been rejected by the Chambers; and the city was soon surrounded with an enceinte and a system of detached forts. But the king refused to allow his Prime Minister to denounce the Quadruple Treaty of London formally to the Chambers; whereupon Thiers resigned and was succeeded by a new Ministry under Marshal Soult, but whose master-spirit was M. Guizot, October, 1840.

Fortification of Paris.

Ministries of Thiers and Guizot.

Return of Napoleon's Remains.

M. Guizot settled the quarrel with Great Britain; and, as a peace-offering, Great Britain consented that the Emperor Napoleon's remains should be removed from St. Helena to Paris. They were disinterred and were conveyed to France by a French squadron under the command of the Prince de Joinville, the son of King Louis Philippe. The squadron arrived at Cherbourg, December 8, 1840, and thence to Havre, whence they were conveyed up the Seine to Paris, where they were interred, with the most imposing ceremonies and in the presence of a vast multitude, in the Hôtel des Invalides, December 15, 1840, as already noticed.

Louis Philippe's Sons.

The Duke of Orleans, King Louis Philippe's eldest son, the heir to the French throne, died July 13, 1842, from the effects of being thrown from his carriage. He left two sons, the Count de Paris and the Duke de Chartres. The Count de Paris, born in 1838, thus became the heir to the French throne.

Guizot's Peaceful Foreign Policy.

M. Guizot, who directed the policy of the French government from 1840 until the Revolution of February, 1848, continued the fortification of Paris and coincided fully with Louis Philippe's wish to preserve the peace of Europe. By every means in his power he preserved France from European hostilities, brought about an exchange of visits between King Louis Philippe and Queen Victoria, and promoted the king's intrigues for the aggrandizement of the Orleans dynasty and for its establishment by intermarriages with other royal courts of Europe.

His Tyrannical Domestic Policy.

M. Guizot's domestic policy was characterized by pride, tyranny, blindness and a constant succession of encroachments upon the liberties of the French people. During the entire term of his administration M. Guizot continued the work of fortifying Paris, until the entire city was

Fortification of Paris.

surrounded with a girdle of impregnable fortifications, the guns of which were expected to serve equally well in repelling a foreign foe and in crushing any revolt in Paris. Secure in the pride of his power, King Louis Philippe boasted that he held France in the hollow of his hand; and Guizot continued to rule, well satisfied with the apparent success of his policy and convinced of the truth of his own saying that an unpopular government is the most successful.

Spanish Bourbon Marriages and Relations with Great Britain.

In 1846 the Spanish marriages caused a coolness between the French and British governments. Queen Isabella II. of Spain desired a husband. The British government wished her to marry Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. Louis Philippe desired to strengthen his own dynasty by intermarriage with that of the Spanish Bourbons, and selected her own cousin, Don Francisco d'Assis, Duke of Cadiz, as a husband for Queen Isabella II. Great Britain strenuously opposed this match, but the French king's policy triumphed. The Queen of Spain married her cousin, October 10, 1846; and on the same day the Infanta Louise of

Spain was married to the Duke of Montpensier, Louis Philippe's youngest son. These royal marriages deeply offended Great Britain, and coolness and suspicion characterized the relations of France and Great Britain thenceforth until the downfall of Louis Philippe.

Weakness of Louis Philippe's Government.

In 1847 a strong feeling was excited in France by the events in Italy and Switzerland, and the policy of M. Guizot was giving great offense to the liberals, while an action for bribery against General Cubieres and the Minister, Teste, and the atrocious murder of the Duchess of Praslin in her bed-chamber by her husband disclosed the total lack of morality in the upper classes of France, and the feeling became prevalent that the Orleanist monarchy, resting on such rotten supports, could not endure, while the demand for elective reform became the watchword of the day, with the hope of infusing fresh vigor into the government and the Chamber.

Wars with Abd-el-Kader in Algiers.

During the whole of Louis Philippe's reign—a period of seventeen years—France was engaged, at an enormous cost of blood and treasure, in supporting her colonists in Algiers against the indefatigable Arab chieftain, Abd-el-Kader. This redoubtable warrior, although frequently defeated, expelled from his territories and deprived of his authority, continued to annoy the French colony by his bold raids and restless enterprise. To secure the peace of the French colonists, the French government was obliged to keep a force of almost a hundred thousand men constantly under arms in Algiers.

War with Morocco.

In 1844 Muley Abderrahman, Emperor of Morocco, formed an alliance with Abd-el-Kader; but the French defeated the united Arab and Moorish forces in the great battle of Isly, while the French navy bombarded the Moorish ports of Tangier and Mogadore, thus compelling the Emperor of Morocco to renounce his alliance with Abd-el-Kader and make peace with France.

Cruel Extermination of the Ouled Riahs.

In 1845 the French under General Pelissier inflicted a dreadful act of vengeance on the Ouled Riahs, a tribe of Kabyles, one of the Berber nations, who had never been subdued. The Ouled Riahs fled to their mountain cave on Pelissier's approach. The French commander then caused fagots to be piled up against the entrance to the cave and informed the natives that these fagots would be set on fire unless they came out and surrendered their arms and horses. They refused at first, but afterward replied that they would surrender if the French would retire to a distance. Pelissier rejected this condition and caused fire to be set to the fagots. The French heard dreadful noises in the cavern. Some of the Kabyles were for submission. Others were as stubbornly for martyrdom. The latter prevailed, but some of the unfortunates escaped. The French commander again exhorted the Kabyles to surrender, but they stubbornly refused. Some women tried

to escape; but their husbands and others shot them in the act, firmly resolved that all should suffer martyrdom together. Pelissier then ordered the fire to be put out and sent a flag of truce into the cavern, but the natives drove away the bearer of the flag with a shower of musketry. The French then rekindled the fire, and the appalling cries of the victims were heard echoing through the windings of the cavern, but gradually these sounds died away. When the fires were extinguished the French entered the cavern, where they found the bodies of a thousand human beings—men, women and children—who had died amid suffocating smoke and profound darkness, trampled under foot and piled in heaps. Only thirty-seven escaped, and the Ouled Riahs were exterminated.

Abd-el-Kader's Surrender.

Abd-el-Kader's opposition ended only with his surrender to the French at the close of 1847. In violation of the pledge of the French commander, the captured Arab chieftain was conveyed to France and imprisoned in the chateau of Amboise. After being held in captivity for a long time, he was finally released and transported to Turkey.

Algeria.

The surrender of Abd-el-Kader completed the French conquest of Algiers, which became the French province of *Algeria*.

Denmark and Its Constitution.

In the meantime the Scandinavian kingdoms remained unshaken by the revolutionary tempests which disturbed the other states of Continental Europe. Frederick VI. of Denmark died in 1839, leaving the Danish crown to his son CHRISTIAN VIII., who died in 1848 and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK VII., who gave his subjects a constitution, since which time Denmark has been a constitutional monarchy.

Sweden and Norway under the Bernadotte Dynasty.

Sweden's history since the fall of Napoleon has been peaceful and uneventful. We have alluded to the election of the French Marshal Bernadotte, Napoleon's old comrade, as Crown Prince of Sweden in 1810; and also to the cession of Norway to the King of Sweden by the King of Denmark in 1814. Sweden and Norway have since been separate independent kingdoms under one sovereign, and the king must reside half of each year in each of his two kingdoms. The Storthing, or legislature of Norway, is composed of representatives of the four Estates of the kingdom—nobles, clergy, burghers and peasants—and is in some respects the most democratic assembly in Europe. Upon the death of Charles XIII., in 1818, Bernadotte became King of Sweden and Norway with the title of CHARLES XIV. He died March 8, 1844, and was succeeded by his son OSCAR I., who died in 1859, leaving the crowns of Sweden and Norway to his son CHARLES XV., who died September 18, 1872, and was succeeded by his brother OSCAR II.

As a result of the revolutionary movements of 1830–'31, the German governments obtained a complete triumph; but they outraged the peo-

ple's sense of justice by the use which they made of their victory, especially when, upon the accession of Queen Victoria to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland, in June, 1837, the crowns of Great Britain and Hanover were separated for the first time since 1714, and her uncle ERNEST AUGUSTUS became King of Hanover. This king abolished the constitution which his predecessor had granted to the Estates of his kingdom, thus restoring absolutism. Undismayed by the opposition which this arbitrary proceeding occasioned, Ernest Augustus required an oath of allegiance from all the officers of the crown. Seven professors of the Göttingen University, among whom were the brothers Jacob and William Grimm, refused to comply with the king's demand, whereupon they were deprived of their chairs and some of them were banished from the country. When the Estates of Hanover were incompetent to pass resolutions, from a deficiency of numbers, the absentees were replaced by election from the minority. These measures produced a deep gulf between the people and the government in Hanover, and the people were profoundly dissatisfied with the "police state." The government was denounced by means of the press, literature and poetry; and the people joyfully saluted every opposition to the state officials.

Tyranny of King Ernest Augustus of Hanover.

Amid all these contests and divisions, the aspirations for national and political unity ran through the whole public life of the German people; and for the realization of this desire Prussia came forward in 1827 to assist by establishing the Zollverein, or Customs Union, the foundation of German unity.

Prussia and the Zollverein.

The triumph of absolutism in Germany was owing mainly to the influence of the two great German powers—Austria and Prussia. Since 1815 Prince Metternich, the Prime Minister of the Emperor Francis I., had been the real ruler of the Austrian Empire, and he exerted himself resolutely for the maintenance of despotism. He remained at the head of the Austrian government after the death of Francis I., March 2, 1835, and the accession of his weak son, FERDINAND I., directing the affairs of Austria until the Revolutions of 1848.

Prince Metternich's Despotism in Austria.

As a result of the reactionary tendencies of the German state governments, the opposition between the German people and their governments grew fiercer daily. The polite literature of "Young Germany"; the excitable poetry of Herwegh, Hoffman von Fallersleben and other singers of political freedom; the fearless daily press; the free-thinking and anti-Church writings of young philosophers and theologians; the discourses and doctrines of the "friends of light" in the Protestant Church and of the "German Catholics" in the Roman Catholic Church —all these spiritual aspirations disclosed the profound unrest of a great part of the German people, their deep dissatisfaction with pre-

German Popular Unrest.

vailing conditions in Church and State and their aversion to the system retained and sustained by their state governments. An extreme phase of the general German popular unrest was the first appearance of German Socialism, as exemplified in the celebrated *Manifesto* of the political philosopher Karl Marx, issued in 1847—the beginning of a propaganda which has grown to gigantic proportions in Germany in recent years and which has spread all over the civilized world, making wonderful progress everywhere. Frederick Engels and Lassalle were worthy disciples of Karl Marx, the latter organizing the Social Democratic party in Germany in 1864.

Karl Marx and Socialism.

Frederick William III. of Prussia died June 7, 1840, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., who commenced his reign by granting an amnesty to all political offenders, and whose language and conduct at the beginning of his reign induced his subjects to believe that he was the constitutional king they had long hoped for. He was a sovereign of high accomplishments and of active mind, and considered himself obliged to make some concessions to the spirit of the age, such as throwing open the courts of justice and permitting oral pleadings, also diminishing ecclesiastical restraints by an edict of toleration. He made Berlin the chief center of German learning and science and did much to improve and adorn his capital. He also paid much attention to the welfare of his subjects, but he held fast to absolute government. His subjects vainly appealed to him to grant a constitution, reminding him of his father's promises. At a *United Diet*, composed of a union of the various provincial diets of Prussia, April 11, 1847, he would not grant a constitution under any circumstances, thus extinguishing the last hope of the Prussian people.

Frederick William IV. of Prussia, A. D. 1840–1861.

His Absolutism.

In the United Diet at Berlin, in spite of all the restrictions contained in the patent of February 3, 1847, summoning this Diet, so violent an opposition was manifested, previous promises were so eloquently referred to, the just claims of a civilized nation to a free press and other political privileges were so eloquently urged, that the old system of government seemed no longer tenable. The Prussian people proudly sustained the proceedings of an assembly which exhibited such brilliant oratorical powers and such a fullness of intelligence and judgment. While the educated and the wealthy were following with great interest the internal struggles in Church and State and viewing anxiously the troubles in trade, where a series of bankruptcies had deprived thousands of their worldly possessions, famine invaded the huts of the poor, who were unable to procure provisions on account of the increase in the prices of the necessaries of life.

The United Diet and the Prussian People.

Social Distress in Germany.

The terrible distress which produced pestilence in Upper Silesia and which caused scenes of Irish misery in many trading and manufactur-

ing centers of Germany, along with the exciting literature in the hands of the lower classes, produced a widespread popular feeling, which at length developed into general insurrections at Stuttgart, Munich and other towns of Germany. These disturbances were soon suppressed by the military and the police, and a plentiful harvest and the benevolence of the rich soon put an end to the temporary distress; but the increasing inequality in property and in the enjoyments of life were now revealed in their fullest extent for the first time, and men gazed with horror at the misery and wretchedness of the lower classes.

Misrule of King Louis I. of Bavaria.

The popular disaffection was aroused to its highest degree by the conduct of King Louis I. of Bavaria, who had succeeded his father Maximilian Joseph I. on the latter's death, in 1825, and who had now surrendered himself to the wiles of Lola Montez, a Spanish courtesan, and had been led by her into acts of folly and extravagance. The Ultramontane party, which had ruled the old king for many years, quarreled with this courtesan, whom the king had created Countess of Landsfeldt, and was suddenly menaced with loss of political power. Louis I. dismissed the Ministry of Abel and the leaders of the Ultramontane party in the Bavarian universities. This produced a disturbance among the Bavarian people; and when King Louis I., in his indignation at the students for sustaining the Ultramontane party and not showing the respect to the insolent courtesan that he required, ordered the University of Munich to be closed and commanded the students to quit the place, an insurrection broke out, which forced King Louis I. to recall the suspension and to dismiss the Countess of Landsfeldt.

Lola Montez.

Politico-Religious Dissensions in Switzerland.

During this period there was great enmity in Switzerland between the Catholics and the Protestants and between the conservatives and the radicals. In the Canton of Aargau the radical government had suppressed the eight monasteries within its territory as "meeting-places of rebellion" and had confiscated their property. The protests of the seven Catholic cantons—Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zug, Freiburg and Valais—produced no effect upon the Swiss Diet. The division increased when the Ultramontane government of Lucerne, with the support of the people of the canton, called in Jesuits to superintend the education of the youth and repelled the radicals, who desired to effect a revolution by means of a volunteer expedition. The contest then developed into a desperate struggle between Jesuitism and radicalism.

The Catholic Sonderbund and the Swiss Radicals.

The seven Catholic cantons demanded punishment of the volunteers, legal protection against similar undertakings and the restoration of the monasteries of Aargau; and when their demands were rejected they formed a *Sonderbund*, or "special confederation," for mutual defense against internal and external attacks. The radicals, who, by means

of the *Putsche*, had a majority in the Diet at Vaud, Geneva and other places, caused the passage of a resolution dissolving the Sonderbund as incompatible with the general government of Switzerland and banished the Jesuits.

Civil War in Switzerland.

As the members of the Sonderbund refused to submit to the decisions of the Diet, an appeal was made to arms, thus involving Switzerland in civil war. Contrary to expectation, the struggle was soon over. A federal army under General Dufour subdued Freiburg and Lucerne with little resistance, whereupon the other Catholic cantons readily submitted. They were obliged to dissolve the Sonderbund, to banish the Jesuits, to change their respective cantonal governments and to pay the expenses of the war.

Dissolution of the Sonderbund.

France, Austria and Prussia offered their mediation when too late. The French found the Sonderbund already dissolved; and when it became known that M. Guizot, the French Prime Minister, took the part of the Jesuits the dissatisfaction with Louis Philippe's government in France increased. The Swiss took advantage of the situation to remodel their federal constitution and to establish a stronger central government.

Agitation for Italian Unity.

The hope for Italian unity and liberty still blazed forth. Besides the radical party of Young Italy, there was a moderate party composed of the best men of Piedmont, who proposed to accomplish the same purpose by a peaceful revolution of public sentiment. This party looked to King Charles Albert of Sardinia to lead them to success. This party also existed in Tuscany. Although the Italian press was trammeled by state control, a number of able writers advocated their principles in political works, essays, novels and poems, and strove to rouse a determination in the Italians to become a free and united nation. The Pope and the Austrians were denounced as the foremost oppressors of Italy, the Pope being but the instrument of the Emperor of Austria, to whom he was indebted for his throne. The chief of these patriotic Italian writers were Cesare Balbo, the Abate Gioberti, Massimo d'Azeglio, Giuseppe Giusti, the Marquis Gino Capponi, Baron Bettino Ricasoli and Alessandro Manzoni.

Pope Gregory XVI.

Pope Gregory XVI. was bitterly opposed to all reform and was the mere instrument of the Jesuits, whose power in the Roman Catholic Church was rapidly overshadowing everything else, while he took inspiration in political matters from the Emperor of Austria. The Pope's partisans were called *Gregoriani*.

Pope Pius IX. and His Liberal Policy.

After the death of Pope Gregory XVI., Cardinal Mastai Ferreti was elected Pope with the title of Pius IX., June 18, 1846. To the surprise and delight of all Italy, the new Head of the Church took the lead in reform, thus beginning his pontificate by reversing the illiberal

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policy of his predecessor. He intended to be a constitutional Pope, and his first acts were full of promise. He liberated all political prisoners within his dominions and extended a general amnesty to all political offenders. He granted his subjects freedom of the press and of speech and the right to petition for a redress of grievances, improved the administration of justice, gave the city of Rome a liberal municipal government, subjected the monasteries and convents to a rigid inspection and promised other reforms. He also took steps for a confederation of all the Italian states.

Result of His Reform Policy.

Thus Pope Pius IX. was at first a zealous political reformer, and the liberal course pursued by him at once aroused a spirit of republicanism and nationality throughout Italy. The fiery Italians were seized with a mighty enthusiasm, and new hopes sprang up in the bosoms of the Italian patriots. The Gregoriani were indignant at the Pope's course, and the ultra republicans were angry because his course made him the most popular man in Italy; but the great mass of the Pope's own subjects were delighted, as the reform policy of His Holiness gave promise of a better day for the Roman people.

Outbreaks in Rome and Austrian Intervention.

In the spring of 1847 there were a number of disturbances in the streets of Rome, and the papal troops and the municipal police were unable to maintain order. The liberal party demanded the formation of a National Guard; and, in spite of the opposition of the Austrian government to this plan, the Pope consented to the formation of a National Guard in Rome and in all the Papal States, July, 1847. To punish Pius IX. for yielding to the popular demand, the Austrian government sent a strong force of Croats into the Pope's dominions; and this force occupied Ferrara, in spite of the protests of the papal legate.

Reform Movements in Italy.

The success of the reform movement in Rome encouraged the other Italian states to wring constitutions from their rulers, who for the moment were obliged to yield to the demands of their subjects, though they relied upon Austria to crush the popular movement throughout Italy. The death of Maria Louisa, Duchess of Parma, the little-loved and little-respected widow of Napoleon I., December 18, 1847, made the ducal throne of Parma vacant.

Sicily's Revolt against Naples.

An insurrection broke out at Palermo in January, 1848; and the Sicilians rose in revolt against their sovereign, King Ferdinand V. of Naples, established a provisional government and asserted their independence. A bloody war ensued between the Sicilians and the Neapolitans, and Ferdinand V. of Naples was forced to grant a liberal constitution. Archduke Leopold of Tuscany and King Charles Albert of Sardinia did the same; and the Duke of Modena, a zealous defender of the doctrine of the "divine right" of princes, saved himself from the vengeance of his subjects by flight.

Italian Constitutions.

King Charles Albert of Sardinia and the Austrians.

King Charles Albert of Sardinia placed himself at the head of the Italian movement and declared his readiness to go to war with Austria if the Austrian troops advanced farther into the papal territory. These events aroused the hopes of the Italians for national unity and civil freedom, and their fiery animosity was directed against the two powers which stood in the way of this object—the Jesuits and the Austrians. With the shouts for Pio Nono were mingled vivas for Gioberti, the enemy of the Jesuits, and cries of "Death to the Germans" against Austria.

SECTION IX.—REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 IN FRANCE, GERMANY, HUNGARY, ITALY.

Reform Banquets in France Forbidden.

During the latter part of 1847 and in the beginning of 1848 numerous reform banquets were held in different parts of France, in which the shortcomings of the government of King Louis Philippe were unsparingly attacked in bold speeches and toasts. The speech from the throne denounced the whole reform movement on the ground that it was based on blind and angry passions. Arrangements were made for the holding of a reform banquet in one of the arrondissements of Paris, on the 22d of February, 1848, Washington's birthday; but the Ministry issued a proclamation forbidding it, and made preparations to suppress it by military force if it were attempted. The Chamber of Deputies, then in session, warmly discussed the arbitrary measures of the government; and the opposition members resolved upon the impeachment of the Ministers for violating the constitution; but the French people were already too much excited to be calmed by such a measure as this.

Revolution in Paris Begun, February 22, 1848.

The reform banquet arranged for the 22d of February, 1848, was not held; but, on the morning of that day, large crowds collected in Paris, blocked up the avenues leading to the legislative Chambers and made offensive demonstrations before the house of M. Guizot. Crowds of artisans, men in blouses, students and the refuse of the streets paraded through the squares and thoroughfares of the French capital, with the cry of "Reform! Down with Guizot!" The crowds increased hourly, the military acted with forbearance and the police was no match for the mob. About noon a large crowd assembled in front of the Church of the Madeleine, but were easily dispersed by the troops. In the evening disturbances began in the French capital. Gunsmiths' shops were broken open, lamps were extinguished, barricades were erected, guards were attacked, and the streets were filled with soldiers. In the Chambers, Odillon Barrot moved an impeachment of the Prime Minister.

Street Fighting on February 23.

On the morning of February 23d the streets of Paris were filled with large crowds of people, barricades were erected, and some fighting occurred between the people and the troops, in which several persons were killed. In obedience to the request of the National Guards, who fraternized with the people, the king dismissed the Ministry of M. Guizot and called on Count Molé to form a new Cabinet, at the same time promising reform. This action of the king produced a lull and occasioned great delight among the excited populace, crowds marching through the streets with songs and glad shouts, the barricades being removed and the houses being illuminated; but the wanton discharge of musketry upon a large crowd by the guards assembled before M. Guizot's hotel, by which fifty-two persons were killed and wounded, again excited the fury of the populace, who paraded through the streets with a bier covered with dead bodies, crying: "To arms!" "Down with the assassins!" "Down with Louis Philippe!" "Down with the Bourbons!" "We are slaughtered!" At midnight the alarum-bell was sounded, as a signal for the populace of the French capital to rise in their might to overthrow the reigning dynasty.

Fall of Guizot's Ministry.

February 24.

On the morning of February 24th the whole city of Paris was in possession of the people, the streets being closed up with barricades. At the Chateau d'Eau, a large stone building in front of the Palais Royal, a severe fight occurred between the people and the municipal guards; and the chateau was demolished by fire. The mob then marched to the Tuileries and demanded the abdication of the king. Louis Philippe signed an abdication in favor of his grandson, the young Count de Paris; but the Chambers would not accept the young prince, and Louis Philippe and his family fled to Neuilly, from which place they made their escape to England. The royal furniture was thrown out of the windows of the Tuileries and burned; the wines in the royal cellars were distributed among the multitude; the throne was carried through the streets and finally burned on the Place de la Bastile, and the royal carriages were burned at the Chateau d'Eau. Overwhelmed by the mob and amid the greatest confusion and shouts of "Vive la Republique!" the sturdy republican, Dupont de l'Eure, was carried to the chair in the Chamber of Deputies, where a provisional government was proclaimed, consisting of the following persons—M. Lamartine, Emanuel Arago, Ledru-Rollin, Garnier-Pages, Dupont de l'Eure, Lamoriciere, Cavaignac and Decoutrias. The provisional government was installed at the Hôtel de Ville and proclaimed the *Second French Republic*. The Chamber of Peers was immediately abolished. The poet M. Lamartine was the master-spirit of the new government. Every citizen of France was made an elector, and twenty-five years of age constituted eligibility for office; the penalty of death for political

Abdication of Louis Philippe.

Second French Republic Proclaimed.

offences was immediately abolished, and all slaves on territory subject to France were declared free.

Measures of France's Provisional Government.

On the 4th of March, 1848, the victims of the Revolution of February were solemnly interred, in the presence of nearly half a million of people, at the foot of a monument erected to the memory of the victims of the Revolution of July, 1830. France's new rulers directed their first efforts to the reëstablishment of order, and many grievances of which the people complained were removed. Fêtes, parades and illuminations were given daily for the public amusement. But the spirit of anarchy and restlessness was now rife for another insurrection. As the Revolution had been the work of the laboring classes, efforts were now taken by the provisional government to better their condition. National workshops were established in Paris, where the idle could find employment.

National Workshops.

Red Republican Outbreaks.

The moderate and Red Republicans had united to overturn the throne of Louis Philippe; but no sooner had the Republic been proclaimed than the animosity between those two parties broke forth anew, and when the Reds perceived that the control of public affairs was in the hands of the moderate party they began to conspire for another revolution. The first open opposition to the provisional government was made on the 16th of April, 1848; the object of the movement being the overthrow of the provisional government and the establishment of a Committee of Safety for the direction of public affairs. This movement and a rising of the various clubs of Paris were easily suppressed. Bloody riots occurred on the 23d and 24th of April, 1848, the days for the election of members for a permanent National Assembly.

French National Assembly.

The elections throughout France resulted in large majorities for the moderate republicans; and on the 5th of May, 1848, the newly-elected National Assembly met in Paris and organized with the election of M. Buchez as president. On the following day, May 6, 1848, the members of the provisional government submitted their reports to the National Assembly and resigned their powers. On the 10th the National Assembly appointed M. Emanuel Arago, Garnier-Pages, M. Marie, M. Lamartine and Ledru-Rollin an executive committee to act in place of the provisional government.

Communist Rising of May 15, 1848.

On the 15th of May, 1848, an immense mob assembled in the streets of Paris, proceeded to the hall of the National Assembly, drove out the members and proclaimed Socialism and Communism, the imposition of taxes upon the rich for the benefit of the poor and the restoration of the guillotine. The mob also declared that France should send an army to Poland to drive the Russian troops from that country, and a heavy tax was levied on the rich to carry on the war for Poland. The mob also appointed an executive government composed of the Com-

munist leaders, M. Barbes, Blanqui, Flocon, Cabet, Albert, Raspail and Louis Blanc. This movement doubtless would have resulted in the most serious consequences had not the National Guard declared for the National Assembly, dispersed the mob at the point of the bayonet and restored order. The Communist leaders, Blanqui, Barbes, Raspail, Sobrier and Albert, were arrested and imprisoned.

Discharge and Dissatisfaction of the Public Workmen.

The insurrection of May 15th was only a prelude to the great Communist Rebellion of June. Fearing another demonstration on an extensive scale, the government made the necessary preparations to meet it. Finding the burdens imposed upon the national treasury too heavy to be borne, the government, in June, resolved upon the discharge of the immense army of workmen, more than one hundred thousand in number, uselessly employed in Paris at the public expense. This alarmed the workmen, who immediately organized for another desperate struggle, for the purpose of bringing about the realization in practice of the theory of Communism and Socialism—a community of goods and manners. The party of law and order, which controlled the National Assembly, was resolved upon the complete annihilation of the Communist faction in the event of another appeal to arms.

Great Communist Rebellion of June, 1848.

On the 22d of June, 1848, a deputation of five delegates, appointed by the workmen called on M. Marie, the Prime Minister of the Republic. After a short conference the deputation returned to the workmen, assuring them that they had nothing to expect from the government. This was the signal for riotous demonstrations. Large crowds collected in the evening at the Hôtel de Ville, the Place de la Bastile and other important points, crying for the downfall of the Republic and the elevation of Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte to the head of power. On the following morning, June 23d, it was found that the rioters had made considerable progress and thrown up barricades in various portions of the city. The principal insurgent barricades were in the Rue St. Denis, Rue du Faubourg St. Denis, Rue Villeneuve Bourbon, Rue de Clery and near the Porte St. Denis and the Porte St. Martin.

General Cavaignac Made Dictator.

The government appointed General Cavaignac, then Minister of War, commander-in-chief of all the troops in Paris. The barricades near the Porte St. Denis were carried at the point of the bayonet. The insurgents there were aided by boys, and even by women, who appeared on the barricades, waving flags and other emblems. On the 24th the National Assembly declared Paris in a state of siege and appointed General Cavaignac dictator. A heavy musketry and artillery fire continued during the greater part of the day, and before evening the rebellion was suppressed on the left bank of the Seine, but a sanguinary struggle took place at the Clos St. Lazarre, on the right bank. The

Terrible Street Fighting in Paris.

conflict raged with great fury during the 25th. The government troops numbered three hundred thousand men and the insurgents one hundred and twenty thousand. A terrible struggle raged at the Pantheon, where the rebel barricades were captured after frightful carnage. In the evening of this day occurred one of the saddest events in this unhappy civil war. Monseigneur Affre, Archbishop of Paris, appeared at the Place de la Bastile for the laudable purpose of bringing about a pacification. On the appearance of the noble prelate both parties for a while ceased firing, but suddenly recommenced; and the venerable Archbishop received a mortal wound, and expired on the morning of the 27th.

Death of the Archbishop of Paris.

Suppression of the Rebellion.

On the morning of the 26th the struggle was renewed with terrible fierceness; the principal scenes of action being the Faubourg St. Antoine, the Place Maubert and the vicinity of the Pantheon. At noon the insurgents at the Faubourg St. Antoine surrendered; but the other places were stormed, and the insurgent garrisons of each were killed or captured. The insurgent barricade at the corner of the Rue de la Roquette was attacked by the government troops under General Lamoriciere, after having carried all the rebel barricades in the Faubourg du Temple. From the Place de la Bastile, Lamoriciere's troops bombarded and cannonaded the insurgent works, when the falling of shells on some of the adjoining houses, several of which were set on fire, so frightened the insurgents that they fled out of the city.

Slaughter and Ruin in Paris.

Thus ended the great Rebellion of the Paris Communists in June, 1848. Never before had Paris witnessed such slaughter as during those four sanguinary days. The number of killed and wounded is not definitely known, but twenty-five thousand is probably not a very high estimate. One-fourth of the city was ruined. Several days were occupied in burying the dead and in repairing the damage inflicted on the city. On the 29th, June, 1848, General Cavaignac resigned his dictatorship into the hands of the National Assembly, and that body then appointed him Chief Executive of France.

New French Constitution.

On the 4th of November, 1848, the French National Assembly, by a vote of seven hundred and thirty-nine in favor and thirty in opposition, adopted a Constitution giving France a republican form of government with one Legislative Assembly and vesting the executive power in a President to be elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. The candidates for the Presidency were General Cavaignac, General Changarnier, M. Lamartine, Raspail, Ledru-Rollin, Louis Blanc and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte. To the surprise of all, the Presidential election resulted in the choice of Louis Napoleon, by a clear majority of three million five hundred and fifty-six thousand four hundred votes against all the other candidates combined. The Presi-

Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte Elected President.

dent-elect was sworn into office on December 20, 1848, in the presence of the Assembly by M. Marrast, president of that body.

Consequences of the Paris February Revolution.

The Revolution of February, 1848, in Paris, was the signal for general popular risings in Germany, Italy and Hungary, which countries had long been disturbed by political and social agitation; and concessions which had been vainly demanded for thirty years by the liberal party in Germany were now extorted from every German ruler within three weeks. A propaganda which had its center in Paris stirred the revolutionary flame and diffused republican ideas broadcast over Europe, with a tincture of Communism and Socialism, as the means of arousing the lower classes.

Popular Movements in Germany.

The revolutionary movement in Germany began in Baden, as the active political life which always had distinguished that German Grand Duchy entitled it to lead the cause of reform in the German Fatherland. Thus, on the 29th of February, 1848, deputations with urgent petitions from every town in the Grand Duchy of Baden demanded of the Grand Duke and of the assembled Estates of the Grand Duchy freedom of the press, trial by jury, the right of the people to bear arms and to meet in public, and a popular legislative assembly for all Germany by the side of the Federal Diet at Frankfort-on-the-Main. On the 2d of March the Grand Duke yielded to all these demands, appointed a Ministry from the liberal party and adopted other conciliatory measures. Popular movements of a similar character took place in other parts of Germany. The Kings of Hanover, Saxony and Würtemberg and the reigning princes of Hesse-Cassel and other German states granted to their subjects the concessions which they had demanded. In all these German states the often-persecuted leaders of the popular party were called to the Ministry and many beneficent reforms were introduced in a democratic spirit and with destructive haste. King Louis of Bavaria, after being forced to grant to his subjects the reforms which they had demanded, abdicated his throne in favor of the Crown Prince MAXIMILIAN, March 20, 1848. A change of the same nature occurred in Hesse-Darmstadt.

Vienna and Berlin Revolutions of March, 1848.

The two leading German states—Austria and Prussia—experienced the greatest convulsions in connection with the revolutionary movement which spread over Germany as a consequence of the Paris Revolution of February, 1848; and the capitals of these two great German monarchies—Vienna and Berlin—were the scenes of dreadful revolutions and street-fights about the middle of March, 1848, which ended in popular triumphs. The Vienna Revolution, which occurred on March 13th, will be described a little farther on; while the Berlin Revolution, which occurred on March 18th and 19th, will be noted in this connection.

The Berlin Revolution.

After long hesitation, the King of Prussia, on the 17th of March, 1848, granted freedom of the press and other reforms, also holding out a prospect of German unity under an imperial constitution. But these concessions did not restore tranquillity to the Prussian capital; and, as hostile encounters had occurred between the populace and the military for several days, the people of Berlin also demanded the withdrawal of the soldiers from the capital and the formation of a National Guard. Poles and other foreign agitators inflamed the popular excitement by inflammatory addresses. Crowds assembled in the streets in front of the royal palace and indulged in violent threats against the soldiery, March 18th; whereupon an infantry division marched out of the palace to drive back the rapidly-growing multitude. The firing of two shots by unknown parties was the signal for a terrible street-fight of fourteen hours. By the morning of the 19th most of the barricades erected by the people had been taken or destroyed by the heroism of the troops and by the destructive effects of grape-shot, though the struggle was yet undecided. Finally King Frederick William IV. ordered the troops to withdraw, dismissed the Ministry, consented to the formation of a militia for the capital and a guard for the palace and granted an unconditional amnesty. Three days later—March 21, 1848—during a solemn procession through Berlin, the Prussian king issued a proclamation promising to place himself at the head of a free and united Germany as a constitutional sovereign. A few weeks later a constituent National Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, undertook the task of framing a representative constitution for the Prussian kingdom.

Revolutionary Outbreaks in Germany.

In the meantime all the German states were terribly convulsed. The German Federal Diet had an increase of liberal members, and seventeen trustworthy men were commissioned to frame a new constitution for the German nation. But the popular movement in Germany soon assumed such formidable proportions that reforms were no longer sufficient, and insurrection and revolution were entered upon in many portions of the Fatherland. In many localities the peasants drove away the stewards and destroyed the land and tithe registers and the seats of the landlords.

Action of the German Parliament.

The advocates of radical reform were not satisfied with the action of the German Parliament, which assembled by its own authority in the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main in the beginning of April, 1848; laid down the principle of popular sovereignty; prepared the way for the convocation of a freely-elected German National Assembly which should be charged with the task of framing a constitution for a free and united Germany, and appointed a permanent committee of fifty to see that this resolution was carried out by the German Federal government.

Republican Rising.

A German radical party, headed by Hecker, Struve and others, was striving for a German republic and instigated a republican insur-

rection in Baden; but the republican movement was speedily crushed and the leaders were obliged to flee, after a few military expeditions in which the Federal general, Frederick von Gagern, lost his life.

German National Assembly.

On May 18, 1848, the German National Assembly, which was chosen to frame a constitution for the German nation, convened in the Church of St. Paul, in the Free City of Frankfort-on-the-Main. This Assembly was distinguished by the talent and eloquence of many of its members and was truly representative of German opinion and German civilization. The Assembly immediately set aside the German Federal Diet and established a new central power. After some sharp parliamentary contests, in which the executive ability of the president of the Assembly, Henry von Gagern, determined the result, the Assembly resolved upon the choice of an irresponsible Regent, who was to surround himself with a responsible Ministry. On June 29, 1849, the National Assembly chose the Archduke John of Austria to the new dignity of Regent of Germany, and on July 11, 1849, he received from the hands of the president of the German Federal Diet the power exercised by that body.

Archduke John of Austria, Regent of Germany.

Schleswig-Holstein's Relations with Denmark.

In the meantime a sanguinary national war was in progress in the German Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, whose native German inhabitants longed for political independence of the rule of the King of Denmark. Supported by a good old settlement, according to which Schleswig and Holstein were to be united and to descend as a heritage to the male line of the princely House of Oldenburg only, the sturdy German inhabitants of these two Duchies desired to be united to their German Fatherland politically under the legitimate and native Duke of Augustenburg, upon the impending extinction of the royal family of Denmark. Instigated by the strong Danish party, King Christian VIII. of Denmark had shattered this hope of the Schleswig-Holsteiners by the *Public Letter*, in which he announced the indissoluble union of Schleswig with Denmark and the undivided integrity of the Danish dominions, July 8, 1846.

Schleswig-Holstein's Revolt against Denmark.

When, in consequence of the Paris Revolution of February, 1848, a powerful movement was communicated to the other European states, the German Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein resolved to assert their independence of the rule of the King of Denmark and to assume their place in the German body-politic. Trusting to aid from their kinsmen in the German Fatherland, who had promised assistance in many addresses, the Schleswig-Holsteiners established a provisional government, March 26, 1848, to last until their legitimate position should be attained, their attitude being upheld by the central government of Germany, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, thus giving rise to a bloody war, the Danes taking the field against the revolted Duchies. The Germans interested themselves in the cause of the Schleswig-Holsteiners, who

were accordingly aided by Prussian and other German volunteers, among whom were many students and promising youths, who hazarded life and limb in the struggle; and the Federal German troops, under Prussia's leadership, drove the Danes from Schleswig. But the lack of a German fleet placed the revolted Duchies at a great disadvantage and gave the Danes the superiority. The threatening attitude assumed by Great Britain and Russia, in consequence of the distressing effect of this war upon the maritime trade of Northern Europe, induced Prussia to enter into diplomatic negotiations and to conclude the not-very-creditable Truce of Malmö with the King of Denmark, August 26, 1848, which was sanctioned by the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main, thus suspending hostilities in that quarter for some time.

Republican Rising at Frankfort-on-the-Main.

This disgraceful truce was seized upon by the German republican party as a pretext to disperse the German National Assembly in the Church of St. Paul, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, by means of a revolutionary rising which was to bring about the establishment of a German republic. This project was frustrated by calling in the German Federal troops; and, after a bloody street-fight, the insurrection was crushed; but two members of the National Assembly—Auerswald and Lichnowsky—were murdered by the enraged mob in the Bornheimer wood, September 18, 1848, thus showing the degree to which the passions of the irritated populace had already risen and the dissatisfaction with which the German republicans regarded the moderate course of the National Assembly.

Projected German Union under Prussia.

These proceedings and the violent struggles in Hungary and in other parts of the Austrian Empire convinced the majority of the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main that it would be best for Austria and the rest of Germany to construct separate political systems and then to establish a federal system uniting Austria and the rest of Germany with trade and customs legislation common to both, Prussia to be the head of the new German union. The project had its leading champion in the president of the German National Assembly, Henry von Gagern, who assumed the presidency of the Federal Ministry in order to carry out the scheme the more effectually; but the plan was strenuously opposed by various elements—by the Austrian delegates, because it excluded Austria from Germany; by the Catholics, because it assigned the leadership of Germany to Protestant Prussia; and by the republicans, because it placed an obstacle to their cherished hopes for a German republic in assigning the German leadership to a powerful hereditary monarchy and because they were irritated at the King of Prussia for dissolving the Prussian constituent National Assembly at Berlin.

Dissolution of the Prussian National Assembly.

King Frederick William IV. of Prussia had become disgusted with the fickle conduct of the democrats of Berlin, having frequently changed his Ministry in accordance with their wishes; having allowed perfect freedom of debate in the Prussian constituent National Assembly, where the democrats had a majority, and having relinquished the defense of his capital to the Prussian militia. For some time the Berlin populace had been kept in an excited state by native and foreign agitators, by public orators and by placards on the walls. Popular unions ruled the city, and noisy rioters constantly surrounded the Prussian constituent National Assembly and exercised an influence upon the debates and deliberations of that body by intimidation. The King of Prussia resolved to put an end to such proceedings, and the new Brandenburg-Manteuffel Ministry adjourned the Assembly and removed its next sitting to the town of Brandenburg. In defiance of the state of war with which Berlin was threatened, many of the members of the Assembly resolved to continue their sittings in that city, but were driven out by the troops; and when the Assembly declared the levying of taxes illegal it was dissolved. At the same time the Prussian government proclaimed a liberal constitution, which was to be submitted for ratification to a new elective Assembly with two Chambers.

New Imperial Constitution for Germany.

Finally in March, 1849, in the midst of many contests, the German constituent National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main finished the task for which it had been convened—that of framing an imperial constitution for a united Germany, having established and promulgated the "fundamental right of the German people." The Gagern party, which aimed at a German union, with an hereditary Emperor and a legislative Assembly with two branches, a government chamber and a popular house, had at last secured the adoption of their plan by a small majority, after they had gained the support of many republican members by accepting a democratic elective law with the universal right of suffrage. The new imperial constitution was finished by this compromise, while the transference of the hereditary dignity of Emperor to the King of Prussia was also adopted, March, 1849.

Its Rejection by the King of Prussia.

A solemn deputation, headed by the German National Assembly's president, Simson, conveyed the Assembly's resolution to the King of Prussia and offered him the dignity of the Emperor of Germany, upon condition of his accepting the new imperial constitution in all its details. On April 3, 1849, King Frederick William IV. met the deputation in the great hall of his palace in Berlin, with the eyes of all Germany upon the proceeding. At first he gave an ambiguous answer, and finally he decisively rejected the new constitution and the imperial dignity. The disappointed deputies of the German National Assembly returned to Frankfort like scattered fugitives. When the

Prussian Assembly of Estates—which had again been summoned—voted an address to the throne, in which they recommended the acceptance of the constitution and the imperial dignity by the king as the desire of the German people, the first chamber was prorogued and the second dissolved; and the elective law was so changed that the right of universal suffrage was to give place to an election arranged upon the three tax-paying classes.

Revolutionary Risings in Germany.

The consequences of the Prussian king's rejection of the new imperial German constitution were fresh commotions in various parts of Germany. The democrats and republicans, who hitherto had been dissatisfied with the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main, with the imperial constitution and with the "historical sentimentality" of an hereditary Emperor, now took advantage of the rejection by again appealing to arms; and formidable insurrections and bloody street-fights occurred, for the purpose of "carrying through the imperial constitution." Even in those German states that had opposed the introduction of the proposed constitution popular outbreaks took place, as in Saxony, in Rhenish Bavaria and in Rhenish Prussia. Other German states were soon involved in the revolutionary movement; and a mutiny broke out in the garrison of the fortress of Rastadt, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, where the government had acknowledged the new imperial constitution, which extended itself to Carlsruhe, thus compelling the Grand Duke of Baden to take flight, whereupon the control of public affairs in the Grand Duchy came into the hands of the democrats and republicans, thus giving the revolution great headway. In the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main the republican party was also gaining power by the opposition of the German governments to the work of the new constitution, particularly when many of the conservative and constitutional party voluntarily resigned their seats and others submitted to the summons of their respective state governments.

Revolutionary Risings Crushed by the Prussian Army.

But the revolutionary movement in Germany was speedily suppressed by the Prussian army. Prussian troops crushed the popular risings in Elberfeld, Düsseldorf and many other places. At the call of the Saxon government, Prussian troops marched to Dresden; and, after a barricade street-fight of six days in the Saxon capital, wrested the city from the provisional government and restored the authority of the King of Saxony. Finally, when the Grand Duke of Baden called for assistance from Berlin, Prussian troops and militia marched into Baden and Rhenish Bavaria and crushed the revolution in those states just in time to prevent its extension to the Kingdom of Würtemberg. While these events were transpiring, the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main was gradually losing its conservative members, so that the

republican party was at last left supreme in that body. This republican majority resolved to preserve its power by a revolution, for which purpose these republican members removed their sittings from Frankfort-on-the-Main to Stuttgart, in Würtemberg, in order to be nearer the revolutionary center. The "Rump Parliament," having less than a hundred members, went over to Würtemberg, where they established an "imperial regency" of five members and gave prestige to the revolutionary movement, until the Minister, Römer, a firm and resolute man, put an end to their proceedings and forced them to leave the kingdom, June 18, 1849. At the same time Prussian troops marched through the Grand Duchy of Baden, defeated the revolted troops and the volunteers under the Polish adventurer Mierolawski in several engagements and restored the Grand Duke's authority. Trütsch, a member of the German National Assembly, and other revolutionary leaders were shot, while others succeeded in saving themselves by fleeing into republican countries.

Prussia's Proposed German Union.

While the revolutionary movement was still in progress in the open field the King of Prussia issued a proclamation to his subjects, which was calculated to restore their confidence. He promised to satisfy the aspirations for German unity by establishing a union with a popular representation and thus settle the still-open question of a German imperial constitution. While Austria was engaged in her struggle with revolted Hungary, Prussia sought to unite all Germany except Austria in a new confederation under Prussian leadership, with a new imperial constitution on the basis of the one proposed by the German National Assembly at Frankfort-on-the-Main—a proposal which was received with approval by all the moderate party, many of the members of the German National Assembly meeting in Gotha, in what was called "the after Parliament," thus contributing materially to the pacification of the disturbed German states. With the view of materializing the new union, Prussia concluded an alliance with Hanover and Saxony, May 26, 1849; and this "league of three kings" was afterward joined by some smaller German states and was called the *German Union*. Very soon, however, Hanover and Saxony, supported by Austria, withdrew from this Union. This German Union was soon revived, and a Parliament of this Union was convened at Erfurt, March 20, 1850; but neither Hanover nor Saxony sent any deputies to it, and after a few sittings it adjourned indefinitely, while Hanover retired from the new German Union.

Prussia's Constitution.

By the adoption of a constitution on February 6, 1850, Prussia became a constitutional monarchy, thus opening up a new era in the history of that hitherto-absolute kingdom and putting it in the line of progress ushered in by the new spirit of the age.

Renewal of the Schleswig-Holstein War.

In consequence of the distractions and dissensions in Germany in 1848 and 1849, hostilities were renewed in Schleswig-Holstein in March, 1849. On April 5, 1849, German troops sunk the Danish ship-of-the-line *Christian VIII.* by means of shore batteries and compelled the Danish frigate *Gefion* to surrender after the loss of her rudder. The triumphant Germans soon advanced on Frederica and laid siege to that frontier fortress. But the activity of the allied Prussian and other German troops was paralyzed by the peace negotiations opened with Denmark, thus enabling the Danes to reinforce the garrison of Frederica and subsequently to expel the German troops by an unexpected sally and to secure possession of the trenches and the artillery. A new armistice was concluded in July, 1849, in consequence of which Schleswig was placed under a neutral government and garrisoned with German and Swedish troops. In the following year, 1850, a treaty of peace was signed by which Schleswig-Holstein was to remain under the rule of the King of Denmark; but the lieutenancy which the German central power had established in the Duchies during the war would not accept the treaty; and this lieutenancy, after the retreat of the Prussian garrison, resolved to uphold its rights by its own strength and with the aid of the German nation.

Vienna Revolution of March, 1848.

The Paris Revolution of February, 1848, aroused the various races in the ill-compacted Austrian Empire—Germans, Italians, Slavonians and Hungarians. When the Diet of Lower Austria was opened at Vienna, on the 13th of March, 1848, a large concourse of people, headed by the students of the University, proceeded to the hall in which the Diet assembled and demanded a constitution, liberty of the press, a National Guard, trial by jury and religious liberty. The order for the people to disperse not being obeyed, the Archduke Albert ordered the troops to fire into the crowd. A great number were killed and wounded, and the exasperation of the excited populace obliged the Austrian Emperor to order the soldiers to withdraw. The arsenal was opened to the people by the city guards, who declared for the popular cause. The Ministry of Prince Metternich was overthrown, and in a few days the Emperor Ferdinand yielded to all the demands of the people; the venerable Prince Metternich, who had ruled the Austrian Empire for a third of a century, ever since the fall of Napoleon, seeking refuge in England. Lawlessness soon prevailed in the Austrian capital, and the result of the liberty of the press was a disgraceful daily literature, while the right of assembly was made use of to form tumultuous mobs and democratic clubs, the great number of idle workmen facilitating the plans of the revolutionary party, so that the activity of the democrats who flocked into Vienna from all points excited riots, insurrections and street-fights, which were of frequent occurrence. On the 18th of May,

1848, the Emperor and his court retired to Innsbruck, in the Tyrol; but, at the request of the people and of the Austrian Diet, which in the meantime had been chosen by universal suffrage and assembled, he returned to the capital in August, when the students and the democratic clubs ruled Vienna in the most arbitrary and despotic manner.

The Austrian Emperor's Concessions to Hungary.

Just after the Vienna Revolution of March, 1848, a deputation from Hungary, headed by Louis Kossuth, appeared in Vienna and asked for the Hungarian kingdom the royal assent to a series of acts passed by the Hungarian Diet, providing for the annual meeting of that body, the union of Transylvania with Hungary, the organization of a Hungarian National Guard, equality of taxation for all classes, religious toleration, liberty of the press and a separate Ministry for Hungary. These acts were approved by the Emperor-king, who, on the 11th of April, 1848, personally confirmed them in the Hungarian Diet, convened at Pesth, the capital of Hungary. These concessions were hailed with joy by the Hungarians.

Slavic Revolt against Hungary.

The Croats and the other Slavic races under the Hungarian government, jealous of the ascendency of the Magyars and demanding their independence of Hungarian rule, took up arms against the Magyars. The Croats were encouraged in their rebellion by the Austrian government, and Austrian armies were sent to their assistance. The Servians, a Slavonic race, who had also revolted against the Hungarian government, laid waste the Magyar villages and committed the greatest atrocities on the defenseless population. The Hungarian war actually opened on the 12th of June, 1848, when the Magyars bombarded Carlowitz, the Servian metropolis. The Servians in the Ottoman territories hastened to the aid of their brethren in the Austrian dominions, and the Magyars were obliged to take refuge in the fortress of Peterwardein. The whole Servian population in the Banat then rose against the Magyars, and hostilities between the contending races raged with great fury.

Slavic Revolt in Prague.

The Bohemians, a Slavic race, had applied to the Emperor of Austria for a constitution which would render their relations with the Austrian Empire the same as those of the Hungarians. Representatives from all the Slavic nations of the Empire assembled in a Congress at Prague, in June, 1848. During the session of that Congress the people of Prague demanded of Prince Windischgrätz the removal of the troops from the city and the furnishing of arms to the people; and when this demand was not complied with, the people rose in insurrection. After dreadful fighting in the streets of Prague for a whole week, during which the city was also bombarded from the neighboring heights, the city surrendered to Prince Windischgrätz on the 17th of June. The Slavic Congress was broken up and the insurrection was quelled.

Siege and Fall of Prague.

Austria Supports the Slavs against Hungary.

On the 29th of June, 1848, the Austrian imperial government at Vienna announced Austria's intention to openly support the Slavic races in their revolt against Magyar rule; and it soon appeared that Emperor Ferdinand, after the suppression of the rebellion against Austrian authority in Northern Italy, was resolved to deprive the Magyars of the privileges which he had recently granted to them. Convinced that the rights of Hungary must be defended by force of arms, the Hungarian Diet resolved to raise an army of two hundred thousand men.

Austro-Slavic Invasion of Hungary.

In the meantime a united Austrian and Croatian force, under the command of Jellachich, the Ban, or governor, of Croatia, had invaded Hungary and advanced toward Pesth; but the Magyars, aroused by the eloquent and patriotic appeals of Louis Kossuth, one of the ablest of their leaders, soon repulsed the invaders, compelled Jellachich to flee, and, on the 5th of October, 1848, captured the Croatian rear-guard, consisting of ten thousand men.

Murder of Lamberg and Latour and Vienna Revolution of October, 1848.

The Magyars were highly incensed at the course of the Austrian imperial government; and on the 3d of October, 1848, the imperial commissioner, Lamberg, was murdered by an enraged mob on the bridge of Buda-Pesth. The Austrian troops were immediately ordered to march into Hungary; but the democrats of Vienna, who were in sympathy with the Magyars, excited another revolution in the Austrian capital. Count Latour, Minister of War, was murdered by the excited mob; and the Ministry was overthrown, October 6, 1848. The Emperor of Austria fled to Olmütz, in Moravia; and at his command Prince Windischgrätz marched against the rebellious capital. After besieging Vienna for three weeks, the imperial army under Windischgrätz opened a furious assault on the city on the 29th of October; and, after a heroic defence, the city surrendered on the 31st. The conquered capital was placed under martial law; and several of the revolutionary leaders, among whom was Robert Blum, a member of the German National Assembly, were punished with death. The Austrian imperial government then adopted a conciliatory course.

Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria.

Wearied of the contentions in the various parts of his dominions, the Austrian Emperor Ferdinand abdicated his throne, on the 2d of December, 1848, and was succeeded by his nephew, FRANCIS JOSEPH. As the new Emperor did not take the requisite oath to support the constitution, laws and liberties of Hungary, the Magyars refused to acknowledge him as their sovereign.

Hungarian Preparations.

All the efforts of the Magyars for a peaceful settlement of difficulties were unsuccessful, as the Austrian imperial government was resolved upon depriving Hungary of her rights. The Magyars therefore made the most vigorous exertions for defense; manufactories of arms and

ammunition were established; the peasants of Hungary flew to arms, and the most intense enthusiasm was manifested.

Austrian Invasion of Hungary.

In December, 1848, the Austrian army under Windischgrätz entered Hungary from the west; and on the 5th of January, 1849, Pesth fell into the hands of the Austrian and Croation forces under Windischgrätz and Jellachich. Kossuth and the Hungarian Ministry and Diet retired to Debreczin, in the south-eastern part of Hungary.

Fall of Essek.

On the 30th of January, 1849, the Magyars lost the strong fortress of Essek, in Slavonia, which was surrendered to the imperialists with its garrison of five thousand men. About the same time General Bem, a Pole, who was at the head of an army of ten thousand Magyars, was driven from Transylvania; the Saxons and Wallachs, who inhabit that province, having joined the Austrians; but, the warlike Szecklers, of Southern Hungary, having risen in favor of the Magyars, Bem returned to Transylvania, defeated the Austrians and Russians who opposed him, took Kronstadt and Hermannstadt, and then passed into the Banat and captured Temesvar, its capital.

Operations in Transylvania.

Hungarian Concentration.

At the beginning of February, 1849, Kossuth appointed General Dembinski, also a Pole, to the chief command of the Magyar forces. Dembinski concentrated the Hungarian armies in the upper part of the valley of the Theiss to meet the advancing Austrians under Windischgrätz. On the 26th and 27th of February, 1849, a bloody battle was fought between forty thousand Magyars and sixty thousand Austrians at Kapolna, where, in consequence of the inactivity of the Hungarian General Görgey, the imperialists were victorious.

Battle of Kapolna.

New Imperial Austrian Constitution.

The new Emperor, Francis Joseph, dissolved the Austrian constituent Diet at Kremsier; and on the 4th of March, 1849, he proclaimed a constitution for the Austrian Empire, by which Hungary was to be incorporated with Austria. The Austrian government also solicited the aid of Russia to crush the Hungarian rebellion. The Hungarian Diet at Debreczin, convinced of the impossibility of a reconciliation with Austria, took a decisive step, on the 14th of April, 1849, by declaring the independence of Hungary; and Louis Kossuth was appointed Governor of Hungary with almost absolute powers. On the 12th of May, 1849, the Emperor of Austria issued a proclamation to the Magyars, announcing the intervention of Russia and ordering them to lay down their arms.

Gorgey's Victories over the Austrians.

At length Görgey was entrusted with the chief command of the Hungarian armies, Dembinski having resigned that post a few days after the battle of Kapolna. After fourteen days of terrific hand-to-hand fighting, commencing with the battle of Szolnok on the 27th of March and ending with the capture of Waitzen by Görgey on the 9th of April, the Magyars recovered Pesth, relieved Komorn and utterly

routed the imperialists. On the 17th of April the chief command of the Austrian armies was assigned to Baron Welden. On the 18th, April, 1849, Welden was defeated at Szonz; and on the 19th the Austrian reserve under Wohlgemuth was annihilated at Nagy Sarlo. The Austrians were severely repulsed in several attempts to carry by storm the strong fortress of Komorn, and Welden was compelled to retreat toward Vienna. Instead of following up his successes by threatening the Austrian capital, as urged by Kossuth, Görgey laid siege to the strong fortress of Buda, opposite Pesth. Görgey carried Buda by storm on the 21st of May; but the siege involved a delay fatal to the cause of Hungary, and saved Vienna and probably the Austrian Empire. The imperial forces were now completely driven out of Hungary, and the first campaign in the great Austro-Hungarian War of 1848–'49 ended in the triumph of the Magyars.

Siege and Capture of Buda.

Russia's Aid to Austria.

In response to Austria's application for Russian assistance in subduing the Magyar insurgents, the Czar Nicholas sent an army of one hundred and sixty thousand men, under the command of Prince Paskiewitsch, to invade Hungary on the north-east. As the same time the Austrians were preparing to reënter Hungary on the west; and by the 1st of June, 1849, four hundred thousand hostile troops were on the Hungarian frontiers. On the 30th of May the brutal Baron Haynau was invested with the chief command of the Austrian armies. At about the same time, early in June, Haynau with fifty thousand Austrians entered Hungary at Pressburg; Paskiewitsch with ninety thousand Russians crossed the Gallician frontiers and invaded Hungary on the north-east; an Austro-Russian army of fifty-five thousand men entered Transylvania, and Jellachich with his Croats advanced into the Magyar territory from the south.

Austro-Russian Invasion of Hungary.

Russian Successes and Retreat of Bem and Dembinski.

Now opened the second campaign in the Hungarian war—the campaign which resulted in the subjugation of the Hungarian insurgents. After a gallant resistance, Bem was driven from Transylvania by the overwhelming forces of the Russians. Paskiewitsch, with the main Russian army, entered Debreczin on the 7th of July and Pesth on the 11th, and compelled Dembinski to retreat southward into the Banat. Jellachich, after suffering a severe defeat near Hegyes, marched up the Theiss with his Croats to form a junction with the Austrians under Haynau.

Battle of Komorn and Gorgey's Retreat.

Haynau, who in the meantime had advanced from Pressburg with the main Austrian army, was defeated by Görgey near Komorn, on the 11th of July, 1849. From Komorn Görgey retreated eastward to Tokay, and thence southward to Arad, which place he reached on the 8th of August. On the 19th of July, 1849, Haynau entered Pesth, and then went in pursuit of Görgey. The cruelties of Haynau dur-

ing his whole career in Hungary reflected disgrace upon his memory and acquired for him the well-merited title of "Hungary's Hangman."

Klapka's Grand Sortie from Komorn.

While Haynau was marching southward in pursuit of the retreating Görgey, an event occurred far in his rear which created serious alarm among the Austrians. On the 3d of August, 1849, the garrison of Komorn, under General Klapka, made a grand sortie from the fortress, utterly routed the Austrians in that vicinity and opened the road to Vienna. On the 8th, August, 1849, after four days' fighting with the Austrians, Dembinski was severely wounded; whereupon the command of his army devolved on Bem, who, on the following day, August 9, 1849, engaged the Austrian and Croatian forces under Haynau and Jellachich at Temesvar, where, after a sanguinary conflict, in which Bem was covered with wounds, the army which he commanded was thoroughly annihilated; Görgey, although within a short distance of the place where he was fighting, having neglected to come to his assistance.

Battle of Temesvar.

Gorgey Made Dictator of Hungary.

The disasters to the Hungarian arms were in a great measure owing to the dissensions and want of concert among the Polish and Magyar generals; and Görgey, with whom the gratification of personal ambition was a primary consideration, was striving for absolute power. At the request of Görgey and at the solicitation of his friends, Kossuth, on the 10th of August, 1849, dissolved the provisional government and appointed the ambitious general dictator. Görgey had long been suspected of treachery to the cause of Hungary, and he had repeatedly disobeyed the orders of the provisional government. It now appeared that for some time he had been engaged in a treasonable correspondence with the enemies of his country, and he immediately made use of his absolute power to ruin the cause of Hungarian independence. On the 13th of August, 1849, Görgey surrendered, without any conditions, his entire army of thirty-five thousand men to the Russian General Rudiger, at Villagos.

His Treacherous Surrender at Villagos.

Submission of Hungary.

The treacherous surrender of Görgey paralyzed all the efforts of the Magyars; the various Hungarian detachments laid down their arms, and Hungary lay powerless before the despotic power of Austria. Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski and many others of the patriot leaders fled into the Ottoman dominions; and the Sultan of Turkey nobly refused to deliver them up at the demands of the Austrian government. Bem received a command in the Turkish army. In 1850 Kossuth left Turkey and visited England and the United States, in which countries his noble efforts in the cause of Hungarian freedom excited universal sympathy.

Flight of Hungarian Leaders.

Surrender of Komorn.

On the 29th of September, 1849, Komorn surrendered to the Austrians on favorable conditions; and, with the fall of that important fortress, all military opposition to Austrian power in Hungary ceased.

Execution of Hungarian Leaders.

To the everlasting infamy of the Austrian government, thirteen Hungarian generals and staff-officers were executed at Arad, on the 6th of October, 1849. Many of the Hungarian civil leaders met the same fate. A large number of the inferior officers were imprisoned in fortresses, some for a term of years and others for life; and no less than seventy thousand Hungarians who had engaged in the rebellion were compelled to serve in the Austrian army.

Popular Insurrections in Austrian Italy.

For several years there had been much political agitation in those portions of Italy subject to Austria—namely, Lombardy and Venetia. The Paris Revolution of February, 1848, aroused the Italians, and finally the Vienna Revolution of March precipitated the climax in Austrian Italy. On the 18th of March, 1848—the day of the Revolution in Berlin—the people of Milan, on receiving intelligence of the March Revolution of Vienna, flocked to the government-house and demanded the release of all political prisoners and the formation of a National Guard. The Austrian troops fired; whereupon the mob raised the cry of "Evviva Italia!" and, rushing forward, overpowered the guard. A discharge of musketry on the people by the military occasioned a general rising; and, after a barricade street-fight of five days, the Austrian troops were driven from the city. At the same time popular risings occurred at Parma and Pavia, which resulted in the expulsion of the Austrian garrisons from those places; and all Lombardy and Venetia was in open rebellion against the Austrian power.

Austro-Sardinian War.

On the 23d of March, 1848, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, issued a proclamation in favor of Italian nationality and of war against Austria, and marched with an army into Lombardy to assist the insurgents there to drive out the Austrians; being supported in his first moments of enthusiasm and surprise by multitudes of Italian volunteers, thus enabling him to force back the Austrians to the northern Italian frontier. The delays of Charles Albert gave the Austrian Field-Marshal Radetzky time to concentrate his forces and to receive reinforcements. The Sardinian king gained victories over the Austrians at Peschiera and Goito and captured Rivoli; but, while he was employed in the siege of Mantua, the Austrians under Radetzky defeated the Sardinians at La Corona, after a desperate conflict. After defeating the King of Sardinia in a bloody battle at Custozza on the 25th of July and in another at Bussolongo on the 26th, Field-Marshal Radetzky soon reconquered Milan and reduced the whole of Lombardy to submission. King Charles Albert concluded an armistice with the Austrians and then retired into his own dominions.

Austrian Victories.

Armistice.

Sicily's Revolt against Naples.

The Sicilians were still engaged in their bloody struggle for independence against the King of Naples, begun in January, 1848; and, as we have seen, Ferdinand V. had granted a liberal constitution to the

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THE ANCIENT TIBER AND ITS ISLAND

people of Naples. In consequence of Ferdinand's violation of his liberal promises, an insurrection broke out in the city of Naples, in May, 1848; and the king gave up his capital to be plundered and sacked by the lazzaroni, who brutally massacred many of the inhabitants. Ferdinand vigorously prosecuted the war against the revolted Sicilians by means of his mercenary Swiss troops. Messina surrendered to the Neapolitans after a fierce bombardment of two days; the Sicilians were defeated in a furious battle at Catania; and Palermo yielded to the arms of the Neapolitans after a short resistance. With the fall of Palermo, King Ferdinand V. of Naples recovered his authority throughout Sicily; after which he overthrew by violence the constitution in Naples, which he had granted in a moment of necessity.

Revolution in Rome and Flight of Pope Pius IX.

The liberal movement soon became too powerful in Rome for the weak Pontiff to control. The Roman people at length outstripped Pius IX. in the matter of reform, and the promise of the Pope to grant a constitutional government to the Pontificial States and his summoning of a National Assembly did not satisfy his subjects. The appointment of Count Rossi, an avowed antagonist of the liberal movement, to the head of the Ministry excited the indignation of the Roman people, who thus became convinced that a reaction had taken place in the mind of the Pope. On the 15th of November, 1848, Rossi was assassinated on the steps of the Assembly House. A popular rising ensued. A mob proceeded to the Pope's palace, and, after a short conflict with the papal guards, forced the Pope to appoint a popular Ministry. On the 23d of November, 1848, the Pope fled from Rome and retired to Gaëta, in the Kingdom of Naples. On the 9th of February, 1849, a popularly-chosen National Assembly declared the Pope's temporal power at an end and that the form of government for the Roman States should should be a pure democracy with the title of the *Roman Republic*. A Triumvirate was chosen to exercise executive duties; and at the head of the new government was the able, energetic and eloquent Joseph Mazzini, the enterprising head of the party of *Young Italy*. The commander of the volunteers was the ardent republican, Joseph Garibaldi.

New Roman Republic.

Renewal of the Austro-Sardinian War.

Austrian Victories.

Charles Albert's Abdication.

Urged by the Italian republicans, King Charles Albert of Sardinia declared his armistice with Austria at an end on the 20th of March, 1849; and on the same day his kingdom was invaded by the Austrian army under Field-Marshal Radetzky. After a spirited campaign of four days on the Ticino and near Novara, Sardina lay prostrate before the power of Austria; and on the evening of the 23d, March, 1849, Charles Albert abdicated the throne of Sardinia in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel II., and immediately retired to Portugal, where he died of a broken heart shortly afterward. On the 25th of March,

1849, Victor Emmanuel II. concluded a treaty of peace with Austria, by which Sardinia was required to pay fifteen millions of dollars as indemnity for the expenses of Austria in the war.

Siege and Capture of Rome by a French Army.

After waiting anxiously several months for the Roman people to recall him, Pope Pius IX. appealed to the Roman Catholic powers for assistance to restore his temporal power. In response to this appeal, Republican France sent an army of four thousand men under General Oudinot against Rome. The Roman republicans made earnest preparations for defense. The Roman National Assembly declared itself permanent, and Mazzini made fiery addresses to the people. When the French troops arrived before Rome, on the 30th of April, 1849, they found the Roman volunteers under General Garibaldi ready to make a determined resistance. The first attack of the French was repulsed, and the Eternal City held out heroically until its resources were exhausted; and, after withstanding many furious assaults and a regular bombardment, Rome surrendered to the besieging French on the 3d of July, 1849. General Garibaldi and the popular leaders escaped to England and the United States, and the Pope was restored to his former power under the protection of foreign bayonets. Thenceforth Pope Pius IX. was a most zealous friend of absolutism and a bitter antagonist to all liberal movements.

Siege and Capture of Venice by an Austrian Army.

While victory shone upon the Austrian arms in Lombardy and Piedmont an Austrian army was engaged in the siege of Venice, which, in March, 1848, had revolted against Austrian rule and proclaimed the *Republic of St. Mark*. Under the able republican leader, Manini, Venice maintained its independence for nearly a year and a half. After a siege of many months, during which much property had been destroyed and all her provisions had been exhausted, Venice surrendered to Field-Marshal Radetzky, on the 25th of August, 1849; and, with the fall of that gallant city, the authority of Austria was reëstablished throughout Lombardy and Venetia. The Grand Duke of Tuscany had been driven from his dominions by a popular insurrection, which established a republican government, which lasted only a few weeks.

Austro-Prussian Rivalry.

Frederick William IV. of Prussia made another effort to form a German league under Prussia's leadership by convening a Congress of the German princes at Berlin, May 10, 1850. Austria, alarmed for her own supremacy in Germany, assembled the Diet of the old German Confederation at Frankfort-on-the-Main, May 10, 1850, the very day when the Congress under Prussia's leadership convened at Berlin. All the German states except Prussia and Oldenburg were represented in this meeting of the old German Federal Diet.

Thus two rival German assemblies were in session at the same time—one at Berlin to form a new German confederation under Prussian